DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 058 790 80 FL 002 870

AUTHOR Dusel, John P.; And Others
TITLE Foreign Language Framework for California Public Schools: Kindergarten through Grade Twelve.
INSTITUTION California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 72
NOTE 192p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$6.58
DESCRIPTORS Articulation (Program); Computer Assisted Instruction; Cultural Education; Curriculum Guides; Educational Objectives; Guidelines; Individualized Instruction; *Instructional Improvement; *Instructional Program Divisions; *Language Instruction; *Language Programs; Linguistics; Modern Languages; Programed Instruction; Program Guides; *State Curriculum Guides; Student Evaluation

ABSTRACT

This guide to language instruction in California public schools is designed for teachers, administrators, counselors, board members, parents and curriculum planners. Five major areas concern: (1) creating effective foreign language programs, (2) designing a course of study for foreign languages, (3) implementing a foreign language program, (4) individualizing instruction, and (5) professional growth. This text focuses attention on the elements of foreign language instruction, clarifies common problems, offers solutions, and can be used in the planning or reappraisal of any school district's program of foreign language education. Specific chapters concern program articulation, culture, instructional objectives, language proficiency, instructional materials, program coordination, student placement, scheduling, paraprofessionals, programed learning and computer- assisted instruction, student contracts, and instructional improvement. Appendixes contain: (1) commercial language tests, (2) guidelines for evaluation of foreign language instructional materials, (3) study-abroad-program evaluation guidelines, (4) criteria for selection of FLES instructional materials, (5) legal provisions for foreign language instruction in California, (6) instructional objectives and student behaviors, and (7) selected references. (RL)

ED 058790

Foreign Language Framework
for California Public Schools
Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve

Prepared by the
California State Advisory Committee
on Foreign Languages

Adopted by the
California State Board of Education

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FL 002 810

This publication, which was funded under provisions of Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, was edited and prepared for photo-offset production by the Bureau of Publications, California State Department of Education, and was published by the Department, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento, CA 95814

Printed by the Office of State Printing
1972

FOREWORD

Technological advances make it imperative that we learn to communicate successfully with peoples of other lands – and through their native languages. The society of tomorrow will be a multilingual society, and our children must be prepared to meet the challenges of that society. Therefore, California's public school children should be encouraged to study a foreign language over a long enough period of time so that they develop proficiency in that language. And school districts must establish well-articulated, sequentially developed foreign language programs that will enable children to achieve this desired mastery of language.

The responsibilities of all agencies of public education as they relate to foreign language instruction in California should be the same as they are for any other subject in the curriculum. The same careful attention must be given to the quality of foreign language instruction that is given to all other areas of instruction. It is time that foreign languages take their rightful place among the various disciplines within the curriculum. The feeling that foreign language instruction is an esoteric frill or that instruction in foreign language should be provided only for an elite few can no longer be tolerated.

By enacting legislation in the area of foreign language instruction, the California Legislature showed public awareness of the importance of foreign language teaching in our public schools. In terms of the legislation passed, administrators and school district governing boards might be asked these questions:

- How have you encouraged the establishment of programs in the elementary grades?
- What types of foreign language courses are you offering at the seventh and eighth grade levels?
- Are you adhering to the spirit as well as the letter of the law?
- Are you including in your program planning accountability of student performance?

Careful consideration must be given three prerequisites to good instruction: (1) competent teachers; (2) appropriate materials; and (3) provision for continuity of the program.

California is in an excellent position to produce a bilingual citizenry because of her large population of minority groups with foreign language backgrounds: Chinese, Filipino, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, and Spanish, to name a few. However, bilingual education opportunities should be afforded all children. Those whose native language is other than English should be provided instruction to maintain and improve upon their native language proficiency at the same time as they are given instruction in English; English-speaking students should be given the opportunity to become bilingual, for instruction in a foreign language is imperative for them too.

The choice of the language or languages to be taught is at the discretion of the school district. In making such decisions, however, it is well to consider the language background of the persons in a given community. Opportunities to enrich the school environment and to utilize appropriate community resources should not be overlooked in foreign language teaching and learning. Consideration should also be given to the initiation of programs in the so-called "exotic" languages of the world, such as Arabic, Hebrew, and Hindi.

Only by having a sound program of foreign language instruction, with insight into cultures, can we eliminate the intellectual provincialism of American life and move from a predominately monolingual to a multilingual society. It is my hope that this Framework will help us develop such a program.

Wilson Riles

Superintendent of Public Instruction

PREFACE

During the last two decades, new knowledge of foreign language learning has been gained, and new approaches and ideas regarding the teaching of foreign languages have been developed. The major emphasis has been upon making foreign language learning a meaningful and practical experience for students. The State Advisory Committee on Foreign Languages, appointed by the California State Department of Education, prepared the *Foreign Language Framework for California Public Schools* with this particular emphasis in mind.

Teachers, administrators, supervisors, counselors, board members, parents, and those who are concerned with writing courses of study can use the Framework for creating, designing, and implementing foreign language programs. Information about programmed learning, computer-assisted instruction, and a student contract system is included to assist those districts planning individualized instruction in foreign languages. The committee also lists a number of ways in which teachers of foreign languages can ensure their professional growth.

The approach of this document is in no way prescriptive. The guidelines presented in the Framework, along with the information provided in a number of appendixes, are designed to assist those who want to develop a superior foreign language program or who want to remodel or evaluate their present offerings in this area.

EUGENE GONZALES
Associate Superintendent of Public Instruction; and Chief, Division of Instruction

MITCHELL L. VOYDAT
Chief, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Appreciation is expressed to the following persons, all of whom contributed to the development of the *Foreign Language Framework for California Public Schools.*

California State Advisory Committee on Foreign Languages[1]

Lewis Allbee
Superintendent, Barstow Unified School District (1968-1971)[2]

Ernest Garcia
Professor, California State College at San Bernardino (1968-1971)

Albert JeKenta
Head of FLES Department, Beverly Hills Unified School District (1968-1971)

Sumako Kimizuka
Associate Professor, University of Southern California (1968-1971)

Marian F. McNamara
Teacher, Palo Alto City Unified School District (1969-1971)

Robert W. Parr
Foreign Language Coordinator, South San Francisco Unified School District (1968-1971)

Robert G. Schneider
Doctoral candidate, Stanford University, Palo Alto (1969-1971)

Harold Wingard
Foreign Language Specialist, San Diego City Unified School District (1968-1971; Chairman, 1970-1971)

---

[1] The dates in parentheses following each name indicate the period of time during which that person was a member of the committee.

[2] The titles and locations given for persons acknowledged here are those that were in effect when this Framework was written.

Former Members of the State Advisory Committee on Foreign Languages

Kai-yu Hsu
Professor of Humanities, Foreign Languages, and World Literature, San Franciso State College (1968)

Edgar List
Professor, Foreign Languages, Fresno State College (1968)

Hilario S. Peña
Principal, Hollenbeck Junior High School, Los Angeles Unified School District (1969-1970)

Paul Sorrentino
Vice-Principal, Sutter Junior High School, Sacramento City Unified School District (1968-1969)

Project Staff and Consultants

John P. Dusel (Coordinator)
Consultant, Foreign Languages, Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education, California State Department of Education

Yvette M. Fallandy (Director, 1968-1969)
Dean of the Faculty, Sonoma State College

Consultants

Mrs. Mary DuFort
Coordinator, Arts and Humanities, Office of the Alameda County Superintendent of Schools

David M. Feldman
Professor of Linguistics, California State College at Fullerton

Hans Koehler
Teacher of German, Leigh High School, Campbell Union High School District

Peter Presta
Professor of Foreign Languages, San Francisco State College

Jack Rhodes
Consultant, Foreign Languages and English as a Second Language, Long Beach Unified School District

Robert Y. Sherman
Teacher, Monroe High School, Los Angeles Unified School District

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Introduction to the Foreign Language Framework

The following principles and policies for implementing foreign language programs were recommended by the California State Foreign Language Advisory Committee on December 18, 1970. They constitute a summary of the major ideas contained in this *Foreign Language Framework for California Public Schools* and may be helpful to parents, school district governing boards, administrators, counselors, teachers, and those engaged in preparing teachers of foreign languages.

- The school curriculum in California should include foreign language instruction in kindergarten and grades one through twelve.
- The study of foreign languages develops proficiencies, knowledge, and attitudes that cannot be acquired through the study of other subjects.
- Such proficiencies, knowledge, and attitudes are essential to understanding the political motivations of other nations and are crucial to appreciating cultural and individual diversity within the United States.
- All California students should be given the opportunity to study foreign languages. Enrollment in foreign language classes should not be limited to those who demonstrate high levels of academic achievement or who aspire to enter colleges and universities.
- The nature and needs of the community should be considered in determining course offerings in foreign languages.
- Programs of foreign language instruction should be designed to meet the diverse needs, interests, and motivations of students.
- A language is better understood, and learning is increased, when the cultural background of the people who speak that language is incorporated into an educational program. When cultural information is an integral part of the language lessons, motivation to learn increases.
- Foreign language teachers should conduct their classes in such a way that each student feels successful, regardless of the student's rate of achievement. Individuals learn at different

rates. Teachers should reward students for what they *can* do rather than punish them for what they cannot do.

- Students should be encouraged to begin foreign language study early in their academic careers and to continue as long as they wish. Whenever possible, the sequence should begin early in elementary school and continue through grade twelve.
- Instruction in foreign languages should be on a daily basis.
- School districts should offer more than one foreign language and allow students to study the language of their choice.
- Students who are native speakers of a language other than English should be provided with courses that enhance and develop proficiency in their native languages.
- Students who enter a program of foreign language instruction have the right to expect their progress within that program to be sequential and continuous. This is so whether the program is taught by one teacher at one site or by several teachers at more than one school.
- The responsibility for providing smooth articulation for students in a foreign language program should be assumed by the teachers involved in that program.
- An effective means for developing a smoothly articulated foreign language program is for teachers in that program to agree upon expected student performance at specified points along the continuum of instruction.
- The effectiveness of a program should be measured by the extent to which students achieve expected behaviors, not upon methods used for instruction, number of chapters covered, or achievement on standardized tests that are unrelated to agreed-upon objectives.
- Responsibility for coordinating foreign language instruction – whether in one school, within a single district, or between school districts – should be assigned to specific individuals, preferably to those whose training and experience are in foreign language education.
- School schedules should be designed to allow for the special characteristics of foreign language instruction as well as those of other subjects.
- Teachers and administrators should explore the use of paraprofessionals – both paid and volunteer – to increase the effectiveness of foreign language instruction.
- The use of electronic equipment in classrooms and language laboratories has potential for increasing the effectiveness of instruction.

- Teachers and administrators should be open to the possibility that programmed learning, computer-assisted instruction, and other means for individualizing instruction may relieve the teacher from routine drudgery and free him to work with individual students who need help.
- Foreign language teachers have the responsibility to improve their own instruction through participation in inservice education activities and to improve foreign language education in general by participating in the activities of professional associations in their field.

Why Provide Instruction in Foreign Languages?

The flight of Sputnik and the passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958 were largely responsible for the development of a widespread awareness of the critical importance of mathematics, science, and foreign languages. School districts in California received federal funds for the support and improvement of programs in these subject areas. Support from the State Department of Education for such programs was provided in the form of instructional guides, teacher-training workshops, and consultant assistance to school districts.

Further support of foreign language education came in June of 1968 when the California State Board of Education approved a grant under Title V of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act for the purpose of developing a framework for teaching foreign languages in the state of California. The State Curriculum Commission then requested the appointment of an advisory committee on foreign languages to assist in the project. In September the State Board of Education appointed nine persons to serve on the California State Advisory Committee on Foreign Languages and assigned them the task of "developing the best direction for California's foreign language program in the public schools" in the form of a framework document for foreign languages.

During the first year of this three-year assignment, a contract was signed with the Sonoma State College Foundation to prepare the following documents as part of the Board's charge to develop a curriculum framework in foreign languages: (1) a workpaper on techniques of placement to improve articulation; (2) a listing of criteria for choosing teaching materials in selected languages; and (3) a study of performance objectives for foreign languages. The committee was further requested to determine whether basic and supplementary textbooks and materials should be furnished by the state as required materials in kindergarten and grades one through eight in California public schools.

Special consultants were commissioned to write working papers on topics that the Advisory Committee on Foreign Languages wanted to cover in the framework document. These papers then became the focus of discussions by the committee, which held several two-day meetings annually over a period of three years. A draft of the document that emerged from these discussions was sent for their consideration to foreign language educators in California counties and school districts, to educators of foreign language teachers in state colleges and universities, and to a selected number of educators in other states. The constructive criticism that was then received was considered in subsequent meetings of the Advisory Committee on Foreign Languages and incorporated into the final document.

The Advisory Committee has deliberated the role of languages in education and has reevaluated the general principles and goals of foreign language education. This Framework reflects the attitude that educators should emphasize the practical and everyday use of languages in school and in the world of work.

Individual differences among students should be accommodated as they become obvious in rates of learning and development of interests. The opportunity to learn a foreign language should not be given only to the college-bound or academically talented student. All students should have the chance to learn a second or third language. This chance should not be denied those who seem least interested or least competent.

For Whom Is the Framework Intended?

The Foreign Language Framework is designed for all those who are concerned with curriculum and teacher education. Teachers, administrators, supervisors, counselors, board members, parent. persons who are concerned with writing courses of study will want to refer to this document for guidance.

What Is the Purpose of the Framework?

The Foreign Language Framework is intended to focus attention on the elements of foreign language instruction, clarify problems, and offer solutions. It is designed to stimulate interest in the value and role of foreign languages today and in the future. With the aid of this publication, a school district can plan or reappraise its program of foreign language education.

The Framework is not intended to be prescriptive, for the needs of students and communities are not the same in all areas of California. Neither is it a course guide, although it does offer suggestions regarding specific form and content for those whose task it is to design course guides. The State Advisory Committee on Foreign Languages submits this document in the spirit of a working paper rather than as a publication that is definitive in its pronouncements.

How Should the Framework Be Used?

The Framework may be used in a variety of ways by those who are concerned with curriculum and with teacher education. It is up to each school district or office of a county superintendent of schools to determine its needs and then make plans accordingly to implement the suggestions and recommendations contained in this publication.

The Framework can be useful in the following activities:

1. Defining the role of foreign language instruction in elementary schools and high schools
2. Designing inservice workshops for teachers of foreign languages
3. Planning foreign language programs in California public schools, kindergarten and grades one through twelve
4. Upgrading foreign language teacher education programs in California colleges and universities

Assistance in implementing the concepts, principles, and procedures recommended in this Framework may be secured by contacting the appropriate staff members in the State Department of Education, in offices of county superintendents of schools, and in school districts. Assistance may also be obtained through the executive boards of state and regional foreign language professional associations.

SECTION I

CREATING EFFECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

The task of creating effective foreign language programs is a real challenge. If you consider that we know so little about how a student learns a second language; if you realize that each foreign language student has his own unique motivations and educational needs and that each foreign language teacher has his own unique goals and style of teaching; and if you are aware that each region in our state, each community, and each school has its own unique character, style, and motivations – if you give thought to all of these factors, you then realize how difficult it becomes to create effective foreign language programs.

chapter 1

Foreign Language Study

The urgency of our need to teach foreign languages increases with each new world crisis. Foreign languages – and our ability to use them – may be our most effective instrument for international understanding.

A world crisis in communication has developed in our time. Peace, cooperation, and survival itself may very largely depend upon our ability to converse on friendly terms with the other peoples of the world. The more precise and comprehensive an individual's control of language, the more effective his communication, for language is the basis of all human relationships.

From the standpoint of the individual student, there are practical and vocational as well as cultural and intellectual reasons for learning foreign languages. Many Americans believe that the intellectual advantage of studying a foreign language far exceeds its practical value. They point out that as we learn another person's language, we gain an insight into his attitudes and his way of life that is difficult and perhaps even impossible to acquire otherwise. If we want to know how another person really thinks, how he feels, how he views life, what his values are, what his sensitivities and motivations are, then we must be able to enter into direct communication with him. Direct communication requires that we become fluent and literate in the languages of those nations and individuals we seek to understand.

Success in many vocations and professions depends on proficiency in foreign languages. Traditional among these are positions in special government agencies, such as the State Department, and positions in special industries, such as exporting/importing and travel. In addition, certain fields of scientific research place a premium on foreign language ability.

More and more persons with foreign language competence are being sought by large numbers of American businesses and industries that operate abroad. Today, nearly any person with foreign language proficiency in addition to a vocational or professional skill – whether he is a lawyer, accountant, engineer, or computer programmer – can command a higher salary (and probably a more interesting position) than his monolingual colleague.

In addition to those Americans who learn foreign languages in order to increase their chances of professional success, large numbers realize that travel in foreign countries is more meaningful for them if they speak the indigenous language.

Another practical reason for Americans to study foreign languages is related to the role that this nation plays in international politics. To a large degree, the leaders who set our policy in dealing with foreign nations reflect the attitudes of the majority of Americans. If these attitudes are provincial – if they are founded on insensitivity to the feelings of foreign peoples – the policies that express them are not likely to be effective. The study of foreign languages helps all Americans expand their personal worlds so that they can understand and support effective foreign policies.

Once we Americans begin to acquire insights into other peoples' ways of thinking and doing, we start a process that helps us understand people who are different from us, including English-speaking people of different racial, ethnic, religious, or social backgrounds. These humanistic and cultural values, essential to a perceptive, educated human being, are long-term goals whose achievement depends on the character and intellectual potential of the individual.

chapter 2

Nature of the Foreign Language Program

In California well over half a million students in kindergarten and grades one through twelve were studying foreign languages in the fall of 1970. At the high school level at that time, language students comprised more than one-third of the state's total high school enrollment. Of these, 237,000 were studying Spanish; 91,000, French; and 50,000, German. The remaining foreign language students were studying Chinese, Greek, Hebrew, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Portuguese, Russian, and Swahili.

A student may choose to begin or continue the study of a foreign language for a wide variety of personal reasons. However, these reasons are generally among the following:

1. The student wants the satisfaction of being able to use a foreign language.
2. The student wants to understand other peoples and their cultures.
3. The student wants to have a broader base for his future plans.
4. The student wants to meet college entrance requirements.

These are four legitimate reasons for studying a foreign language, but the last one can lead foreign language teachers to adopt attitudes and practices that are detrimental not only to individual students but to the foreign language teaching profession as well. The foreign language teacher may begin to conceive of his subject as limited to or primarily for those who are college bound. He may begin to teach as if language learning were a mere intellectual exercise.

Such an attitude may be reflected in the enrollment statistics for the schools of the state. Table 1 shows the decline in the percent of California high school students enrolled in beginning foreign languages from the fall of 1963 to the fall of 1968 and those who continued from the original group each year.

Generally, at least four years of study are necessary for high school students to acquire sufficient proficiency in a foreign language to function effectively in everyday communication situations. It is clear that the vast majority of California's students terminate their foreign language study before they have achieved a usable skill. If an analogy may be made, giving up foreign language study after the first or second year is comparable to terminating reading instruction after the second or third grade.

Table 1

Total Fall Enrollments for All Foreign Languages in California Public Schools, Grades Nine Through Twelve, 1963 Through 1968

Year of language study	Foreign language enrollments, by year					
	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
First	178,668	196,882	203,044	199,975	190,362	194,528
Second . .	136,617	131,288	130,771	139,981	138,209	147,127
Third . . .	53,263	43,160	51,627	51,094	50,092	54,478
Fourth . .	18,031	16,780	11,753	15,855	17,267	19,285

The figures in Table 1 represent enrollments from the first through the fourth year of foreign language study in California public high schools. Shown over a period of six years, the figures illustrate a regular pattern of sharp decline in the number of those who continue their study into the fourth year.

Who Should Study Foreign Languages?

Any student who wishes to learn a foreign language should be encouraged to do so. In addition, students who already have some degree of proficiency should be encouraged to continue foreign language study. This encouragement should come not only from foreign language teachers but also from counselors, administrators, parents, and friends.

What Foreign Languages Should be Offered?

As with other subjects in the curriculum, offerings in foreign language should be responsive to community needs. Sixty-five percent of all high school foreign language students are studying Spanish. Significant numbers are studying French, German, and Latin. When possible, other languages should be offered as well.

One basis for determining language offerings should be the special interests or backgrounds of segments of the community. Thus, depending on their ethnic composition, some communities should offer Armenian, Chinese, classical Greek, modern Greek, Hebrew, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Romanian, Russian, Swahili, or Swedish.

Districts with more than one high school may want to assign the responsibility for instruction in unusual languages to a specific school or schools. These schools could offer languages rarely taught in the United States, such as Hindi or Arabic. Students within such districts should be free to travel or even transfer from their regular school in order to participate in a more varied language program.

Whatever the number of languages offered and whatever the basis for determining which languages are offered, it is important that schools offer as many different languages as their total foreign language enrollments will permit. Care must be taken, however, that there is not a proliferation of mediocre offerings. Qualified teachers, adequate instructional materials, and other components of a good foreign language program must be available.

How Long a Sequence Should Be Offered?

Language acquisition, even acquisition of one's native tongue, is a long process. When we consider that in a given year most foreign language students spend fewer than 150 hours in class and much less time in actual language practice, we understand why students must complete at least four years of study to achieve language proficiency.

Therefore, schools and communities that are serious in their intent to provide students with the opportunity to become proficient in a foreign language must offer a minimum of four years of instruction in each foreign language offered in the curriculum. A number of school districts are now providing the opportunity for students to participate in six- to twelve-year programs.

Studies have shown that students who begin foreign language study in the elementary grades are less apprehensive of high school language instruction and do better work in other subjects in high school and college than those who do not begin the study at the elementary school level.[1] Such students are often eligible for enrollment in advanced courses when they enter high school. In some school districts these students participate in the Advanced Placement Program of the College Entrance Examination Board, which offers college-level coursework in high school.

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[1] Evelyn Brega and John M. Newell, "High School Performance of FLES and Non-FLES Students," *The Modern Language Journal,* LI (November, 1967), 408-411.

Richard A. Clark and Others, *Continuity in Foreign Language Instruction.* Boston: Bureau of Public Information, Massachusetts Department of Education, 1966.

Joseph M. Vocolo, "The Effect of Foreign Language Study in the Elementary School Upon Achievement in the Same Foreign Language in the High School," *The Modern Language Journal,* LI (December, 1967), 463-469.

Increasing numbers of students should be offered opportunities to study subjects, such as social studies or art appreciation, for which a foreign language is the medium of instruction. This has the advantage of helping a student maintain his skills in the foreign language while he pursues knowledge in another discipline.

Some schools have provided students with the opportunity to continue their foreign language study by modifying the traditional schedule for them. For example, some advanced students may profit from daily language classes of less than the normal full period, and they have the freedom to choose this type of program.

One consequence of providing at least a six-year program of foreign language study is that instruction must begin earlier than grade nine. We know that the younger the child is, the more easily he acquires accurate pronunciation and oral fluency.[2] Foreign language instruction should therefore begin in the elementary school.

Whatever the starting point of instruction, a continuous sequence should be offered.

Students should be discouraged from taking two or three years of one language and then transferring to another language for two or three more years. Rather, they should be counseled to follow one language of their choice to the point of proficiency. However, this does not mean that students should be discouraged from starting a second foreign language while they are achieving this proficiency.

What About Bilingual Education?

Bilingual education should be the goal of every sequential foreign language program. The student who succeeds in developing skills in listening and speaking and is well on his way to becoming literate in a second language is indeed becoming bilingual. However, the term

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[2] Frank M. Grittner, *Teaching Foreign Languages.* New York: Harper & Row Pubs., 1969, pp. 61-66.

Wilder Penfield, "The Uncommitted Cortex," *The Atlantic Monthly,* CCXIV (July, 1964), 77-81.

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Stanley Levenson and William Kendrick, *Readings in Foreign Languages for the Elementary School.* Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell Publishing Co., Inc., 1967, pp. 53-69.

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"bilingual education" has a special connotation. It usually refers to programs to help speakers of languages other than English to maintain and develop proficiency in their mother tongue and awareness of their own cultural heritage while they are developing proficiency in the use of English. Ideally, however, any foreign language program should be a bilingual program; likewise, a good bilingual program should consist of a sequential development of skills and experiences in two languages.

The general recognition of bilingual education as a way of helping children whose mother tongue is a language other than English is now being considered as a major means of helping all children – including those whose first language is English – to understand and appreciate better what each has to offer the other.

Bilingual education, normally initiated in the primary grades, also provides for the use of the foreign language in learning about various subjects. This not only promotes effective learning but also encourages the offering of instruction in foreign languages early in the elementary school.

chapter 3

Effective Articulation

Articulation refers not only to the joining together of parts but also to the act or process of language instruction. In order for a foreign language program to be sequential, the teachers in the program must come to an agreement on goals and objectives. Without articulation, no school or combination of schools can have an effective foreign language program.

Individual Differences Among Teachers

Educators often discuss the individual differences of learners and the need to differentiate instruction accordingly. The individual differences of teachers are rarely mentioned. It is assumed that the teacher, provided with the curriculum guide, a teacher's edition of the school district-adopted textbook, and a solid inservice program, will effectively carry out the prescribed program. This simply is not so.

Teachers are as human as students, and their differences are as real. They have different philosophies of education, different approaches to students, and different styles of teaching. However, teachers all want their students to learn. It is upon this commonality that the foreign language program must be built; it is upon this commonality that its success will be maintained.

The first step in building or maintaining an articulated foreign language program is to ensure that teachers meet regularly and frequently to plan articulation. In general, there should be separate meetings for each language that should involve all teachers whose students proceed through a specific sequence. As the teachers discuss objectives, methodologies, approaches, learning activities, tests, textbooks, grading standards, and all the other topics that are involved in the articulation, they will begin to know how their colleagues feel about the key aspects of foreign language education. This knowledge will have its effect in modifying each person's convictions. As discussion proceeds and the group members begin to see issues from the same point of view, formal decisions on specific segments of the program may be made.

Responsibility for Calling Articulation Meetings

In any district or in any office of a county superintendent of schools, a curriculum coordinator is the logical person to be responsible for calling meetings. When there is no foreign language coordinator, the foreign language department chairman should take the responsibility not only for his own school but for feeder schools as well. This function might also be assumed by a counselor or school administrator who values foreign language. In the broadest sense, each individual foreign language teacher is responsible for arranging articulation meetings because he should be concerned that they do indeed take place.

Areas for Discussion in the Articulation Meetings

When foreign language teachers get together, they rarely lack topics for discussion. However, the following areas, many of which are developed in greater detail in other parts of this document, are especially pertinent in developing an articulated foreign language program: the community's wishes; variety in course offerings; language learning as a complex process; program design; and improvement of articulation.

The Community's Wishes

Acceptance by the community involved plays a crucial role in the success of any foreign language program. Since the population of many communities is subject to constant changes in composition, schools should remain sensitive to the community's interest in foreign language. The interests and resources of the community, as well as the needs of the students, should be evaluated before introducing any new foreign language curriculum.

Need for Variety in Course Offerings

Beginning and continuing language courses should be available to students regardless of their grade level, and, to be meaningful and effective, foreign language instruction must serve a variety of student needs. Different interests are accommodated through the offering of a variety of languages within the foreign language program. Then, within the program for each language, courses may be created that emphasize special aspects of student interest. For example, one course might focus on literature, another on hobbies or sports, and another on a skill, such as reading or speaking.

In the interests of further individualizing instruction, many schools are taking approaches that allow for individual learning rates. Such courses are sometimes offered with various time allotments because they are designed to meet goals and objectives that differ from those of traditional courses.

High school graduates who have successfully completed several years of instruction in the same language seek a smooth progression to further study in that language in college. When they enter college they are frequently able to do upper division work. Because of this development, community (junior) colleges in the state are reexamining their foreign language offerings so that a variety of satisfactory courses will be available to such students.

Language Learning as a Complex Process

We know very little about the process of language learning. Current research does indicate, however, that the development of competence in a foreign language is unique among learning processes.

Linguistic Competence

The child has the innate ability to learn language – he learns his native language with amazing speed and efficiency. Foreign language instruction must draw upon this linguistic competence, together with its stock of universal language principles. The child's development of competence in a new language depends upon extensive exposure to that language and upon his ability to internalize its structure.

Linguistic Performance

As the child becomes competent in a foreign language, his use of it will improve proportionately. To become competent, however, the child must acquire the various linguistic skills. The development of these skills requires practice that is regular, frequent, systematic, and extensive.

Program Design

The unique nature of the foreign language learning process demands that instruction in a language be organized systematically into a program. The program design may be composed of a variety of elements, such as the following:

1. Statement of objectives
2. Descriptions of expected levels of proficiency
3. Descriptions of course sequences
4. Descriptions of learning activities

5. Adoption of textbooks
6. Adoption of achievement tests

The decision to use any or all of these elements in designing a program of study has a profound influence on the nature of that course of study and on the achievement of effective articulation. Section II of this Framework is devoted to an explanation of each element.

Articulation means the bringing together or joining of parts to form a union. In foreign language education, articulation may refer to the joining together in a sequential pattern of courses at various levels. For example, good articulation occurs when students progress smoothly and successfully from a first-year Spanish class in an elementary school to a second-year Spanish class in a high school.

Articulation may also refer to the uniformity of results achieved by students enrolled in a specific course, regardless of who the teacher is or where the class is located. For example, good articulation in this sense occurs when students in a French II class in one school achieve success that is comparable to that achieved by students in a French II class in another school.

When all the component courses in a foreign language program are under the control of a single school or school district, the potential for good internal articulation is fairly high. However, when two or more schools or school districts must coordinate the planning of their offerings within an overall instructional sequence, good articulation may be more difficult to achieve.

Improvement of Articulation

Faulty articulation is wasteful and ineffective. When students find that their foreign language classes do not follow one another in smooth progression, their achievement is poor and their confidence is undermined. When courses that should be sequential actually overlap or repeat work needlessly, valuable time is lost. On the other hand, when courses do not prepare students adequately for the work of subsequent levels, the students become frustrated and discouraged. In short, everyone suffers – students, parents, teachers, and the taxpaying public – when foreign language study lacks articulation.

chapter 4

Cultural Understanding

Foreign language teachers frequently express their desire to teach their students to appreciate a foreign culture as well as to use a foreign language. Certainly, students do acquire cultural appreciation as they study a foreign language, but there is little evidence that this appreciation can be taught *per se.* Rather, appreciation seems to develop as the student becomes acquainted with various aspects of a foreign culture and uses this knowledge much the same as he does his linguistic skills. Appreciation of culture comes as the student understands the culture, experiences it, and feels comfortable with it. Thus, if the teacher wants his students to acquire cultural appreciations, he must provide them with the opportunity to experience the foreign culture as they are studying the foreign language.

The word "culture" is used in many ways. Two of the major uses of this word must be considered before the development of cultural appreciation in the foreign language classroom is discussed.

Culture with a Capital C

A common use of the word "culture" is to designate a society's level of civilization or to describe an individual's status in society. Thus, a highly cultured or civilized society is one that has achieved a high degree of sophistication in the arts – music, literature, and architecture, for example. An individual is said to be cultured when he is devoted to or knowledgeable about these arts. The foreign language teacher has little need to use the word "culture" in this sense.

Culture in a Scientific Sense

Another meaning of "culture" derives from its use by scientists, especially sociologists and anthropologists. "Culture" in this sense refers to all the aspects of one society: how its people act and feel, how they relate to one another, and what kinds of social, political, educational, and religious institutions they have created. The culture of a given society, once described, may be compared with the culture of the same society at various times in its history, or it may be compared to the culture of a different society.

This use of the word "culture" is especially important since for the foreign language teacher "culture" here refers to what people in a certain society do, feel, and say in a variety of situations. The teacher must know not only what is correct language; he must also know what is authentic language, and this he can know only if he knows what is authentic culture.

Cultural Caution

The foreign language teacher should guard against emphasizing "Culture" to the exclusion of "culture." The idea that a society's culture is manifested only through its poetry, its music, or its cathedrals can lead the teacher astray. There is no doubt that these are essential aspects of a culture, but they are only part of it.

Many teachers feel that the major purpose of foreign language study is to prepare students to read (i.e., appreciate) the great literary works that have been produced in the language concerned. However, teachers who adopt this attitude run a risk, for many students may have neither the interest nor the preparation to deal successfully with literature.

Application of Cultural Knowledge

Just as students must be given opportunities to practice using the foreign language they are studying, so must they also be given opportunities to practice applying their knowledge of the foreign culture. These opportunities may take many forms.

Defining Situations

Expressions in a language should be practiced in situations that are appropriate to their use. For example, there are many forms of greeting in most languages. If one has just been introduced to a stranger in English, some possible responses are: "Hiya!"; "Pleased to meet you"; and "How come I haven't met *you* before?" Those who speak English natively can easily select the response that is appropriate in a given situation. But just imagine the predicament of the novice, who, having just been introduced to the school principal by his teacher, responds: "How come I haven't met *you* before?" – the response he learned from one of his recent dialogues in an English class.

Situations in which specific responses are used should be clearly defined for the students, and the teacher should make sure that they do indeed understand the situation being considered. The definition should include all pertinent aspects of the situation, including both the obvious and the subtle ones. For example, if a narrative in German describes a mother's anger at her son for not being home on time for dinner, the student needs to know the German attitude about punctuality in general. If a French girl in conversation with her boyfriend switches from *tu* to *vous* when he smiles at another girl, the student must know the French attitude that is basic to the use of these two forms of address. These are two manifestations of how attitudes and perceptions of life differ from one culture to another.

Enacting Roles

An effective way for students to practice applying their knowledge of a foreign culture while they practice using a foreign language is to play roles in imagined or staged situations. The enactment of memorized or spontaneous conversations and dialogues can be helpful.

To provide opportunities for practice in cultural/linguistic discriminations, the teacher may have the students dramatize a series of similar situations that vary from one another in one or two aspects. For example, a situation in which a youth expresses his displeasure over a certain food placed before him by his mother in his own home may lead to one in which he expresses displeasure to the mother of his girlfriend while dining at her home, which may then be followed by a situation in which he expresses displeasure to a waiter in a restaurant. In this kind of exercise, the authentic use of appropriate language depends on the student's understanding of the cultural implications of each situation.

Practice that is not related to real or imagined situations is likely to be meaningless practice – meaningless in that it is done without comprehension and does not result in effective learning. Thus, although substitution and replacement drills that are used extensively in pattern practice probably have value in making automatic certain aspects of language (e.g., agreement of subject and verb or formation of certain verb forms), they may often be unrelated to real situations. These drills should probably be used more sparingly than is the current practice, and they should most always be followed by exercises in which students use the same patterns in real or imagined situations.

Using Gestures

When language is used for oral communication, it is often accompanied by gestures – movements of the head, eyes, shoulders, hands, or, for that matter, of the whole body. The speaker is usually unaware of this action; yet, it is often integral to the transmission of meaning. In fact, a person can often transmit a perfectly understandable communication simply by gesturing. Like verbal language, gestures are systematized within a culture, and they must be translated to be understood in another culture. Thus, when an American gestures as he counts, he indicates "one" by holding up his index finger, with the rest of his fingers and thumb closed in a fist. When a German gestures as he counts, he indicates "one" by holding up his thumb with his fingers closed in a fist. A gesture similar to that used by Americans to mean "Come here" means "Good-bye" in Mexico. These gestures are another aspect of culture that should be learned in the foreign language classroom. For most students, learning to use culturally authentic gestures is a delightful enrichment of the foreign language learning process.

Cultural Information

Many foreign language teachers provide students with bits of information about the culture of the people whose language is being studied. This is sometimes done in the foreign language, sometimes in English. The information may be contained in textbook materials or it may be presented orally by the teacher.

Cultural information is a vital part of the foreign language instructional program, and its presentation should be well-planned, systematic, and integrated with the language instruction itself. Care must be taken that such information is not limited to such items as geographical data, biographical and historical sketches, or comparisons of regional costumes. In the foreign language class, the emphasis should be on those aspects of culture that affect the use of language.

Teachers are encouraged to share with their students the rich, personal experiences they have enjoyed during travel, study, or residence abroad. They should, however, avoid long, meandering monologues that are full of romantic nostalgia. Because they lack focus, such reminiscences usually waste class time and contribute little to an understanding of culture. The society of any given country is so complex that the teacher must guard against giving the impression that his observations hold for all segments of it. If sociologists and anthropologists are careful to avoid overgeneralizations, the foreign language teacher must do the same. Failure to define the segment of population that is being discussed can cause students to stereotype the citizens of another country.

On the other hand, descriptions of the general characteristics of a people are valuable. These may take the form of illustrative anecdotes, such as the following:

1. The conduct of Latin Americans often seems curious to North Americans. When, for example, an American youth is encour-

aged to join his local YMCA, he is shown the well-equipped gym, the swimming pool, the handball courts, the crafts rooms, and the snack bar. Impressed by the plant, he signs his application. The Latin American youth seemingly ignores the elaborateness of the physical facilities and asks first to see the YMCA's constitution. Only if he approves of the philosophy of the YMCA does he sign his application.

2. Young people throughout the world seem to share an aversion to school. The sweetest sound to an American student is: "Due to an emergency, classes are suspended for the day." High school and college students in Mexico, Colombia, or Peru would also be jubilant about a holiday from school and would probably use this time to recite poetry. They love to read their own poems to an audience of their peers. Latin American students respond to the magic of their language and its imagery, which delicately express their feelings, ideals, and philosophy.
3. Latin American cultures value patriotic symbolism highly. This involves the use of a name, an object, or an idea that inspires the imagination and stirs the emotions of a people by recalling a historical incident or a national hero. This type of symbolism apparently fails to stir the North American to the same degree as the Latin American. Its relative unimportance as a force in our culture may prevent us from appreciating its importance in the culture of Latin America.

   A symbolic act by former President Harry S. Truman helped heal a long-festering wound in Mexican-American relations. A century before Mr. Truman assumed the presidency of the United States, the U.S. Marines completed their conquest of Mexico by storming hilltop Chapultepec Castle. Its defenders, young Mexican military cadets, chose suicide rather than surrender; they leaped to their death from the castle walls to the base of the cliff 200 feet below. They preferred death to the ignominy of defeat by a hated enemy. Since then these *Niños Héroes* (child heroes) have symbolized Mexico's resentment against the United States.

   During a state visit to Mexico some 100 years later, President Truman made a significant gesture, eloquent in its simplicity; he placed a wreath at the tomb of the *Niños Héroes.* And in that brief act, some of the resentment against the United States was eased, for the "Colossus of the North" had given symbolic recognition to the valor of the young cadets and the sovereignty of Mexico in a way that was meaningful to Mexicans.

Foreign language teachers are encouraged to be on the alert for materials similar to these anecdotes to illustrate cultural differences.

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SECTION II

DESIGNING A COURSE OF STUDY FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGES

A course of study in a foreign language must provide an organized sequence for students. To be continuous and unified, it must be designed according to a plan. Several elements should be considered in creating this plan. Each chapter in this section is devoted to one of these important elements.

chapter 5

Instructional Objectives[1]

When a student enrolls in a beginning foreign language class, he generally has some expectation, vague though it may be, of what he will be able to do as he progresses in his foreign language study. The teacher in whose course the student enrolls also has some such expectation. Yet, his expectation is likely to differ from the student's, and it may also differ from the expectations of other teachers. With this wide diversity of expectations among students and teachers, it is no wonder that both groups are frequently disappointed at the final result. The problem is clear. Outcomes – both long-range goals and short-range instructional objectives – are either not stated at all or are expressed in such vague general terms that they may be interpreted in a variety of different and often antithetical ways.

Types of Instructional Objectives

Instructional objectives in foreign languages may be divided into two useful categories: (1) those related to proficiency in communication skills, both oral and written; and (2) those related to the components of language skills. An objective for a component skill focuses upon a fragment of a language skill so that the component can be learned in isolation. An objective in the communication skills category involves the proficiencies that are required to transmit and comprehend ideas in situations in which communication takes place. Such an objective may focus on one or several of the basic skills in foreign language, such as speaking, writing, and comprehending through listening and reading.

Communication Skill Objectives

Communication skill objectives concern the development of the student's ability to communicate in a foreign language. They represent terminal as well as continuing goals in foreign language instruction.

Communication skill objectives are limited in number and are essentially the same for all levels of instruction. Thus, the only major difference between a communication skill objective at Level I and one at Level IV is in the complexity of their lexical and structural content. Thus, the following examples of communication skill objectives are applicable at various levels of instruction. Since these objectives might be used at various levels with students of varying needs under conditions that cannot be known here, it would be inappropriate to specify performance standards. This is the responsibility of each teacher in his own classroom.

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[1] See Appendix A for examples of instructional objectives.

LISTENING FOR COMPREHENSION

1. The student listens first to a conversation and then to a series of statements concerning its content. He indicates on an answer sheet which statements describe the content of the conversation and which do not.
2. The student looks at a picture. He listens while the teacher makes several statements suggesting events of which only one may logically have preceded or caused the situation shown in the picture. The student indicates which is the logical statement.

READING FOR COMPREHENSION

The student reads several paragraphs relating to a particular topic and several different résumés of their content. He indicates which résumé most accurately summarizes the content of the paragraphs.

SPEAKING

1. The student looks at a series of sketches depicting a sequence of events in a specific situation. He then describes these events orally.
2. The student responds orally to the teacher's comments and questions on a specific topic in such a way that their communication flows as in normal conversation. The student makes comments and asks questions that initiate further conversation.

WRITING

1. The student looks at several pictures. He describes in writing the events that might have preceded or caused each of the situations depicted.
2. The student describes in writing the characters or events in a scene from a film or a play.

Component Skill Objectives

Each of the four basic communication skills is comprised of innumerable components. In learning any one of the basic skills, the student must learn a multitude of components. For example, before a student can speak well in French, he must learn to pronounce and intone properly as well as to choose appropriate words and structures to express his ideas. If he is to pronounce words properly, he must learn to say a whole series of sounds that do not exist in his native language. Thus, learning to pronounce one sound contributes to the development of proper pronunciation in general, and this in turn contributes to the development of the communication skill of speaking. Component skill objectives are never ends in themselves. Rather, their achievement leads to the attainment of communication skill objectives.

Here are some examples of component skill objectives:

1. When the student hears a sentence recited by the teacher, he repeats it with accurate pronunciation.
2. The student listens as the teacher pronounces three words of which two are the same and the third different in only one sound. He indicates which word is different.
3. When the teacher says a sentence whose verb is in the present tense, the student repeats the sentence, changing the verb to the past tense.

It is sometimes assumed that systematic progress at the skill component level in a highly structured foreign language program will automatically lead to the accomplishment of the communication skill objectives. However, a high degree of student achievement in the skill components will not necessarily ensure proficiency in the communication skills. These skills must be developed concurrently with the skill components.

Relationship Between Communication Skill Objectives and Component Skill Objectives

Students should begin working toward communication skill objectives the very first day of class. Component skill objectives, though necessary and important to the learning of languages, have no significance alone. For example, committing a dialogue to memory may help develop speaking skill, but this is merely a means to an end; it is a component skill. As teachers create objectives for their classes, they should be aware that the ultimate goal is communication, and they must provide students with ample opportunity to attain communication skill objectives.

A frequently expressed long-range goal of foreign language instruction is that students will learn to communicate using each of the four language skills – understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. Other goals may be formulated in an attempt to specify the four skills individually:

1. To understand the spoken language
2. To respond spontaneously to greetings
3. To ask and answer simple questions
4. To read and write what has been practiced orally
5. To use correct grammar

Still other goals may be aimed at creating desirable attitudes:

1. To appreciate the literature and the culture of the people who speak the foreign language
2. To develop an interest in continued foreign language study

All of these goals are undoubtedly valuable, but they are so broad that no two teachers, and certainly no two students, would be able to agree on what any one of them entails. For example, with regard to the goal of understanding the spoken language, what constitutes the "spoken language"? Is the student expected to converse on any subject with no limit to the extent of the vocabulary or complexity of structure to be used? What performance is to be expected of the students? How will he demonstrate that he understands the spoken language?

Clearly Stated Objectives

If a teacher wants his students to "understand the spoken language," then he must have clearly defined objectives – objectives that are stated so that their meaning is clear to him, to his colleagues, and to his students. Learning can be effective only when instructional objectives that have been agreed upon by all concerned are clearly stated. Although all teachers probably agree that students should "understand" the spoken foreign language, teachers might accept very different demonstrations of that understanding. Any of the following behaviors might be among those accepted as an indication of the student's having understood the spoken language:

1. The student gives meaningful responses when the teacher asks questions about his recreational activities during the weekend.
2. The student answers eight out of ten items correctly on a true-false test based on a paragraph that the teacher has read aloud.
3. The student writes a narrative summary of a poem he has heard on a recording.

Despite the fact that each of these behaviors demonstrates understanding of the spoken language, some teachers might not accept all of them as objectives for their first-year students. Only when an objective is specific can teachers intelligently discuss whether it is or is not appropriate at a given level of instruction. Because acceptance by teachers of a common set of instructional objectives plays a significant role in good articulation, it is important for teachers to know how to create effective instructional objectives.

Effective Instructional Objectives

To be useful to the teacher, an instructional objective must clearly define an expected student behavior, it must specify the conditions under which this behavior will take place, and it must provide some criteria for evaluating performance. Sometimes an explanation or example of the evaluation instrument may be included in the statement of the objective.

Underlying the use of instructional objectives expressed in terms of expected student behaviors is the assumption that learning is a process of change in behavior. However, learning can take place with no overt change in behavior. A student can acquire concepts or change an attitude, and the teacher may not see a single observable sign of such learning.

The Teacher's Responsibilities

The teacher should be viewed as a professional facilitator or catalyst in the learning process – a skilled professional artist who creates conditions under which students can learn at their best.

The teacher is not only responsible for the learning that takes place in his classroom, he is also accountable for it. Learning is evaluated according to the student's performance. When aspects of learning cannot be observed in the behavior of students, the teacher has no right to claim that such learning takes place under his guidance. For the teacher to assess his own effectiveness, he must be able to measure the extent to which students achieve instructional objectives. But before the teacher can do this, he must be able to specify measurable objectives.

"Measurable" Objectives

The attainment of effective instructional objectives is observable; that is, it is measurable. It either consists of a behavior, or it is the result of a behavior. Thus, when a student speaks, writes, raises his hand, sits down at his desk, circles a letter on an answer sheet, points to a portion of a picture, or pronounces in Spanish the word *casa,* the teacher can observe – i.e., measure – the student's behavior. However, when the student understands, becomes acquainted with, appreciates, studies, memorizes, knows, or really knows, neither the teacher nor anyone else can determine what change, if any, has taken place in the learner. In creating objectives, the teacher must be sure that the learning described by that objective is observable in the behavior of the student.

One cannot create an effective instructional objective merely by describing a student behavior or something that is a result of a student behavior. For instance, how would a teacher assess achievement of any of the following objectives:

1. Students speak.
2. Students speak German.
3. Students speak German with accurate pronunciation.

Each of these fails as an effective instructional objective because the behavior is not defined in detail. An effective objective must be stated so that it can be interpreted in only one way. This does not mean that every defining detail must be included, but it does mean that sufficient significant details must be given. Adequately defined, the sample objective might be stated as follows:

The student presents a one-minute oral report to the class in German, accurately pronouncing the "ü" in each word that contains that sound.

Thus, two teachers of German who had this objective in view would be likely to expect the same behavior of their students and would be able to measure the degree to which the objective was achieved.

Examples of Effective Instructional Objectives

In short, an effective instructional objective describes expected student behavior (or result of student behavior) and describes it in enough detail to ensure a clear statement of what is expected of the student. The following are examples of such objectives. (Performance standards for evaluating these objectives are not included here.)

1. While viewing a group of five pictures, each of which depicts a different action, the student hears a series of statements describing the content of the pictures. He indicates on an answer sheet which picture is described by each statement.
2. After viewing a film that shows the preparations of a family about to go on a vacation, the student relates to the class the sequence of major events portrayed.

3. After reading a 500-word magazine article, the student answers a series of questions pertaining to its content by copying appropriate phrases in the article.

It is obvious that certain details are assumed in these examples. These assumptions concern the vocabulary and parts of the language structure that students have already learned. If for some reason these assumptions cannot be made, additional details relating to the language to be used by the student would also be stated. However, the focus of the objectives is not on language itself but rather on what the student is expected to do with the language.

Frequently the only objective for which a teacher plans instruction is the number of chapters of the textbook to be "covered" in a certain amount of time. For example, at the end of the fourth week the class should have completed the second chapter; by the end of the semester, the eleventh chapter; and by the end of the year, the twentieth chapter. Here the emphasis is upon content "covered" without defining the minimum performance that is expected of the students as a result of having "covered" that content. Thus, even when teachers have agreed that the first-year textbook is to be "covered" in the first year, the students of one teacher may perform very differently from the students of another teacher. This often leads to recriminations and ill-will, with one teacher questioning the professional competence of the other. The problem is merely that the teachers, even when they agree on the content to be covered, have quite different expectations of how their students should be able to use that content.

Additional Criteria for Evaluation

A clearly stated objective may still not provide the teacher with a totally effective means for assessing student performance. An effective objective should also contain criteria for judging the level of the performance. For example, here is an objective that is expressed in terms of student behavior:

When the teacher requests the student to describe the location of objects in the classroom in French, the student does so.

There is still some question here about how to judge whether the student is achieving at a satisfactory level. How many classroom objects will the teacher ask the student to identify? How many of that number must the student locate correctly to meet the required standard? These questions are answered if the objective contains some additional information:

When the teacher asks the student to describe the location of ten objects in the classroom in French, the student describes correctly in French the location of eight objects.

This statement gives the teacher a criterion for measuring individual performance. For example, to a student who located eight objects correctly, he might say, "Great! You have achieved the objective at a high enough level that you can begin working on the next objective." To a student who located only six objects correctly, the teacher might say, "You're progressing nicely but you need to practice a bit more until you can describe the location of at least eight out of ten objects in French."

Criteria for Evaluating Individual Performance

Here are several pairs of instructional objectives stated in behavioral terms. They are designed for evaluating the performance of individual students. The first objective in each pair does not include criteria for evaluation; the second does present these criteria. Teachers should be aware of the advantages of writing criteria that are similar to the second items in each of the following examples:

EXAMPLE 1

A. While viewing a group of five pictures, each of which depicts a different action, the student hears a series of statements describing the content of the pictures. He indicates on an answer sheet which picture is described by each statement.

B. While viewing a group of five pictures, each of which depicts a different action, the student hears a series of *ten* statements describing the content of the pictures. He indicates on an answer sheet which picture is described by each statement. *He makes at least seven correct identifications.*

EXAMPLE 2

A. After viewing a film that describes the preparations of a family embarking on a vacation, the student relates to the class the sequence of major events portrayed.

B. After viewing a film that describes the preparations of a family embarking on a vacation, the student relates in proper sequence *at least five major events portrayed in the film.*

EXAMPLE 3

A. In a one-minute conversation between the teacher and a student on a topic already studied in class, the student participates by asking questions as well as by responding to them.

B. In a one-minute conversation between the teacher and a student on a topic already studied in class, the student participates by asking *at least three questions* as well as by responding to questions asked by the teacher.

In each of the above examples, the criterion for evaluation that has been added to the second objective contains a quantitative statement. However, performance standards need not be quantitative only. In the second example, for instance, it is clear that the events are to be related in sequence. This is a qualitative criterion, and it is assumed that even if the student were to relate the specified number of events, the standard would not be achieved unless he related them in sequence.

Here are several versions of still another objective. The first contains no criteria for evaluation; the second contains qualitative criteria; and the third includes both qualitative and quantitative criteria.

1. The student writes a description of the leading character in a short story he has read as homework.
2. The student writes *from memory* a description of the leading character in a short story he has read as homework. *The description is to include the character's personality as well as physical traits.*
3. The student writes *from memory a 200-word* description of the leading character in a short story he has read as homework. *The description is to include at least three personality traits and at least five physical traits.*

Criteria for Evaluating Group Performance

It would be ideal if teachers could instruct students on an individual basis. Most American schools, however, are not so organized, and most teachers direct their instruction to the class as a whole. An objective that includes criteria for evaluating individual performance provides the teacher with a guideline for determining whether an individual student is ready to begin work on a new objective. But if the objective contains no criteria for evaluating the achievement of the class as a whole, then the teacher has no guideline to determine whether the class, as a class, is ready to go on. Thus, an effective instructional objective contains not only performance standards for individuals but also for the class as a whole.

Ways to Express Group Performance Standards

There are several ways to express performance standards for a class. One is to specify the number of students who must reach a given individual standard in order for the class to proceed to a new objective.

Such statements may be expressed in a variety of ways:

Half of the students will . . .
All of the students will . . .
Twelve of the fifteen students will . . .
Eighty percent of the students will . . .
Four out of five students sampled will . . .

Applying group standards to some of the sample objectives that have been presented here might result in the following group objectives:

1. While viewing a group of five pictures, each of which depicts a different action, the students in a class hear ten statements describing the content of the pictures. *At least seven out of ten correct identifications* of which picture is described by each statement are made by *at least 80 percent of the students.*
2. After viewing a film that shows the preparations of a family embarking on a vacation, *four out of five students* sampled in the class relate in proper sequence *at least five major events* portrayed by the film.
3. After reading a 500-word magazine article, *all of the students* in the class answer *at least 12 out of 15 questions* by copying the phrase in the article that is an appropriate response.

There are times when the teacher wants to assess the achievement of each individual in the class with respect to a given objective. Often, however, this is not necessary, since a random sampling of individuals can tell the teacher just as well whether the instruction has been effective. The justification of sampling, of course, is that the sample is representative. This means that it accurately reflects the achievement of the group as a whole. Sampling allows the teacher to assess achievement in an informal way, often without even having to interrupt the students as they work.

Establishment of Evaluation Criteria

How does a teacher know what level of achievement to expect from individuals and the class in working to reach a given objective? There are no absolutes in such standards. The most accurate guidelines come from the teacher's experience because only the teacher knows the relative importance of specific objectives.

In some aspects of foreign language learning, students must have minimal control of one behavior before they can proceed to learn another; that is, one task is dependent upon another. For example, the student should be able to use the genders of German nouns orally before he can be expected to use the relative clause.

In other aspects of foreign language learning, tasks are not dependent one upon the other, and the teacher might feel that a lower level of performance would be acceptable. For example, the ability to count may not be related to a student's ability to identify articles of clothing seen in the classroom or to identify the colors of the rainbow. Some lack of knowledge in any of these three areas will probably not hinder the learning of the other two.

As the teacher gains experience not only in teaching his subject but also in dealing with a variety of students, he will become more skilled in setting effective standards for individual and group performance.

Evaluation of Performance Versus Testing

The assessment of performance in relation to the achievement of a specific objective is not the same as testing in the conventional sense. Tests are usually given to assess student achievement at the end of a unit. They are usually formal; they are announced ahead of time with much fanfare (or they are sprung suddenly without notice) to impress students with their significance; and they are graded, and the grades are recorded in the rollbook.

An assessment to determine the level of performance for a given objective need not result in a formal grade, and there is no need to evaluate the performance of each member of the class for every objective since sampling techniques may be used. An assessment is made merely to help the teacher and the students judge to what extent the students have achieved a given instructional objective.

Sources of Objectives

Since not all publishers specify the objectives that may be achieved by using their foreign language textbooks, such objectives must be formulated by teachers. School districts or individual schools may want to appoint a committee to create these objectives, which should be based upon local needs and goals. The local educational philosophy and goals, the nature of the students in a given area, the textbook materials used for instruction, and many other factors will contribute to the nature of specific instructional objectives.

One major factor that must be considered in formulating objectives is the nature of foreign language learning itself. As we discover more and more about how foreign languages are most effectively learned, we will be in a better position to analyze the step-by-step tasks that are involved and to create sequences of objectives.

For individual teachers to create their own objectives is a time-consuming but rewarding task. However, it is not necessary for teachers to start from scratch. The Instructional Objectives Exchange (IOX) at the University of California at Los Angeles has prepared sets of instructional objectives with sample test items for many subject areas, including foreign language.

Instructional objectives expressed in terms of observable student behavior provide the teacher with a highly effective teaching tool. When given specific objectives, the student knows what is expected of him, and the teacher has clear-cut guidelines for designing the instruction. The objective itself serves as the "blueprint" for evaluating the student's achievement. If the teacher develops a series of instructional objectives, he can organize instruction according to an effective educational model.

Model for Using Instructional Objectives[2]

Experience has shown that a requisite to learning a foreign language is analysis of the total task in relation to the component tasks involved. The use of instructional objectives allows the teacher to describe these components in terms of clear short-range objectives. By taking the following four steps, the teacher can provide himself with a procedure for easy lesson planning:

1. State objective.
2. Assess abilities of students.
3. Conduct instruction.
4. Evaluate achievement.

Statement of Objective

Instructional objectives should be expressed in clear behavioral terms and should be communicated to the students so that they will know what is expected of them. If an objective involves a behavior that is independent of previous behaviors learned by the students, the teacher may want to find out how close his students already are to attaining the objective before instruction begins.

Assessment

Before instruction begins, the teacher assesses the students' ability to perform the tasks specified in the first objective. As previously mentioned, the techniques for this assessment may be informal, and the assessment may be done on a sample. If the students perform at the specified level, the teacher selects the next objective, describes it to the class, and makes another assessment.

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[2] Proposed in: W. James Popham, *The Teacher-Empiricist.* Los Angeles: Aegeus Publishing Company, 1965, p. 23.

Instruction

If students do not perform at the specified level on an objective, the teacher then begins instruction. This may consist of one or several activities, all of which are aimed at achieving the objective.

Evaluation

When the instruction is completed, the achievement of the objective is ascertained by determining the level of student performance. If students achieve at the performance level expressed in the objective, they are ready to go on to the next objective and a repeat of the four-step process. If they do not achieve at the expected level, then the teacher must determine why. Perhaps the objective is unrealistic and needs to be modified, or perhaps the instruction was not effective. If the latter is the case, then the teacher must provide additional instruction. This will usually consist of a new learning activity that is aimed at the same objective. It is here, in creating a variety of learning activities to meet any given objective, that the teacher's experience and creativity are vital to the instructional process. Students learn in a variety of ways; the teacher's role is to create the best environment possible to help students achieve their objectives efficiently and effectively.

Educators are being held increasingly accountable for their "product" – the achievement of students. The use of specific instructional objectives may require foreign language teachers to change their style of teaching. The conversion to instruction according to objectives is not easy, but if the teacher wants to ensure that students are learning what he is teaching, there is no better tool at his command.

chapter 6

Proficiency Steps

> Since similar amounts of language learning are to be acquired at different ages, in different schools, and in differing lengths of time, some word other than *year* is needed to express in common terms the learnings attempted and the results achieved.
>
> The word *level* is proposed as such a term, and subject matter may be divided up into a number of such levels. . . ."[1]
>
> The boundaries between successive levels must be recognized as somewhat arbitrary, since the learning of a language is in a sense continuous and unending. However, it is possible to specify approximately what should be achieved by the end of each level. This achievement can be neither described nor tested in terms of the amount of time the learner has spent in class or the number of pages he has "covered" in a textbook.[2]

Over a decade has passed since Nelson Brooks first presented his concept of "levels" of language learning. In California, several significant documents further defined and elaborated the concept.[3] By 1967, however, the concept received only brief attention in the state's Chinese guide[4] and no mention at all in the German guide,[5] both of which were published that year. Now, if the term "level" is used at all, it is as a synonym for "year" – a misuse that indicates that, even today, the most commonly accepted measure of foreign language achievement is the amount of time a student spends in a foreign language class. However, this popular misuse of the term "level" should not keep us from examining the value of the concept it was used to describe.

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[1] Nelson Brooks, *Language and Language Learning* (Second edition). New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1964, p. 120.

[2] *Language Instruction: Perspective and Prospectus.* Prepared by Nelson Brooks, Charles F. Hockett, and Everett V. O'Rourke. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, November, 1963, pp. 23-24.

[3] *Spanish: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing.* Prepared under the direction of Everett V. O'Rourke by James S. Holton and Others. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, May, 1961.

French: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing. Prepared under the direction of Everett V. O'Rourke by Mrs. Dorothy Bouck Hatch and Others. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, October, 1962.

Language Instruction. Prepared by Brooks, Hockett, and O'Rourke.

[4] *Chinese: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing.* Prepared under the direction of Everett V. O'Rourke by Kai-yu Hsu and Others. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1967.

[5] *German: Guide for the Teaching of German in California.* Prepared by John P. Dusel and Others. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1967.

The Concept of Learning Levels

Proponents of the Brooksian concept usually divided the continuum of language learning into six arbitrary levels of achievement. The tendency in defining each level was to describe its grammatical, lexical, or cultural content. Thus, the California state Spanish guide[6] lists for Level I such items as (1) imperfect tense, regular and irregular; (2) demonstratives; and (3) the metric system.

The descriptions of the levels sometimes include activities to be expected of students at each level. Thus, the California state French guide[7] cites for Level I such activities as (1) listening to dialogues and other speech patterns in French; and (2) reading materials that have been learned and mastered orally.

There were three major weaknesses in this approach to implementing the concept. First of all, to divide the continuum of foreign language learning into six levels was an open invitation to equate each level of learning with one year of instruction. This was especially true in California where many high school districts are responsible for precisely six years of instruction. As a consequence, the attempt failed to displace *time* – the traditional measure of accomplishment – with *achievement.*

Second, descriptions of activities and listings of grammatical points, vocabulary items, and cultural concepts to be included in a given level of instruction were not of practical value to the teacher, since they did not describe the specific behaviors that were to be expected of students. For example, it may be agreed that students are to study the imperfect tense in Level I Spanish, but how is the teacher to know what constitutes acceptable proficiency in using that tense?

Third, a vital question remains unanswered. When a student learns the prescribed content, does he continue to do the same type of work as those who have not learned it? Is he held back or is he moved to a group of students at the next level? If he is moved, is this done at the time when he attains, let us say, Level I proficiency, even if this occurs on December 3 or May 1? Doesn't the proficiency level concept imply that students will learn the designated content at various times, in accordance with their individual abilities?

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[6] *Spanish.* Prepared by James S. Holton and Others.

[7] *French.* Prepared by Mrs. Dorothy Bouck Hatch and Others.

Proficiency Steps as a Means of Implementing the Levels Concept

If we accept the basic idea that language learning is a continuum in which skill builds upon skill, then we may mark or identify as many points on that continuum as we wish. We are not bound to six; we may choose 60 or 600. In fact, the larger the number of identification points, the better. To make an analogy, the use of a yardstick is limited if it is graduated only in feet. If, however, it identifies inches and perhaps even quarters or eighths of an inch, it becomes a more valuable measuring device. In the same way, the larger the number of defined points on the continuum of foreign language learning, the more effectively can student progress be measured. These points or markers may be conceived of as "proficiency steps" in foreign language learning.

Because the naming of activities, topics, or grammatical points does not offer a complete reference that teachers and students can use to evaluate achievement, the markers along the continuum of foreign language learning should also include a statement of the behavior to be expected of the student.

Suggestions for Preparing Proficiency Steps

It is obvious that the preparation of proficiency steps requires teacher time and talent. No individual teacher should be expected to accomplish this task on his own, nor should it be expected that such statements for all aspects of foreign language learning at all points on the continuum of a program will be created at one time. However, the necessary work can indeed be done if groups of teachers, functioning perhaps in an inservice education workshop, combine their creative efforts.

Several approaches may be used to develop proficiency steps in planned stages. Foreign language consultant service from the California State Department of Education is available to public school districts that are in the process of preparing these items.

Selected Aspects of Language Skills

Selected skills, such as pronunciation, reading comprehension, or use of specified structural elements, may be isolated and statements of proficiency made for them. These statements should be organized in a sequence that progresses from simple to complex, with the basic component skills being introduced first.

Selected Segments of the Continuum

Another approach in preparing proficiency steps is to isolate segments of the foreign language learning continuum, preferably starting with the first segment, and to describe proficiency in a wide range of skills and competencies. The advantage of this approach is that when development in one skill (e.g., writing) is dependent upon progress in another (e.g., speaking), appropriate sequencing can be indicated.

If a school or school district is able to prepare a comprehensive set of statements describing points in the learning process for a specific course of study, it will have created a remarkable instrument for improving the quality of foreign language instruction. These statements serve at once as guidelines for planning instruction as well for measuring accomplishment.

The Writing of Proficiency Steps

In general, statements describing proficiency steps should contain at least three elements:

1. A designation of the grammatical or cultural focus of the step
2. A description of the topical or subject content
3. A description of the student performance that is to demonstrate achievement of the proficiency step, including a specification of the language skill(s) involved

Let us create a statement describing a proficiency step by using a grammatical point that was recommended in the state's Spanish guide as appropriate for Level I: "The student uses imperfect, regular, and irregular verbs." In this form, the statement is so broad that it is not usable; it lacks focus. Let us limit it: "The student uses the imperfect of any three regular and any five radically changing verbs appearing in the dialogues of the last three chapters of the textbook, *My Spanish Is Your Spanish.*" Or, the verbs may simply be specified: "The student uses the imperfect of *hablar, llevar, comprar, ir, ser, estar, venir,* and *hacer.*"

Now let us add a description of the topical or subject content: "The student explains what he was doing at a specific time on a designated day. In his explanation he uses the imperfect of any five regular and any three irregular verbs appearing in the dialogues of the last three chapters of the textbook *My Spanish Is Your Spanish.*"

The statement becomes a usable proficiency step when it fully describes the behavior to be expected of the student: "The student gives an oral report of approximately 150 words explaining what he was doing at a specific time on a designated day and using the imperfect of any five regular and any three irregular verbs appearing in the dialogues of the last three chapters of the textbook, *My Spanish Is Your Spanish.*"

Let us develop in a similar way another proficiency step, this time using another grammatical point taken from material in the Spanish guide for Level I: "The student uses demonstratives."

In this form, the focus is again too broad. Let us make it more specific: "The student uses demonstrative adjectives, such as *este, esta/ese,* and *esa*" (gramatical or cultural focus).

The two remaining elements must then be formulated: "The student compares the clothing of one of his classmates with that of another student sitting on the opposite side of the room" (topical or subject content); and "The student converses with another student" (expected student performance).

The completed statement might then read as follows: "The student converses with another student and compares his companion's clothing to that of another student sitting on the opposite side of the room. In doing this the student uses the demonstrative adjectives *este, esta/ese,* and *esa.*"

Records of Achievement

Let us assume that in a given school district the level of learning guide assigns a letter to each of the foreign language skills and another letter to knowledge of culture. Such a code might read as follows:

L = Listening comprehension
S = Speaking proficiency
R = Reading comprehension
W = Writing proficiency
C = Cultural knowledge

Let us further assume that the district has been able to define a sequence of exactly 97 proficiency steps for each of the basic skills. Statements describing these proficiency steps are contained in a document that is available to students, parents, counselors, and other interested persons. At the end of the first year of instruction, the teacher can prepare a simple progress report for each student. The following are examples of such reports, one for a student who excels in speaking and the other for a student who has progressed more rapidly in reading:

Johnny

Skill	*Achievement (in number of steps)*
L	26
S	31
R	12
W	9
C	11

Susie

Skill	*Achievement (in number of steps)*
L	14
S	13
R	28
W	25
C	11

With such a report and with the document describing the proficiency steps for the program, students and parents have a far more precise means for measuring progress than they would with a traditional report card.

Problems of articulation are substantially diminished with such a reporting system. For those students who transfer in their second year of foreign language study to another school within the district or to any other district that uses the same proficiency steps, the new teacher knows exactly at what point instruction should be resumed.

In addition to the advantages of using proficiency steps in evaluating and improving articulation, assessing student achievement by this means facilitates the individualization of instruction. Each student knows exactly what he must do at any given point before proceeding to the next step. He may be allowed to proceed at his own pace, or he may be placed in a group to work with other students who are at his achievement level.

chapter 7

Description of Course Sequences and Learning Activities

If a foreign language program is to be successful, its general characteristics must be understood not only by the teachers involved but also by other staff members, by students and parents, and by members of the governing board of the school district concerned.

Teaching according to instructional objectives or expected proficiencies and utilizing agreed-upon testing programs or textbook materials are important methods of improving instruction and facilitating articulation. However, these methods are detailed and technical in nature; despite their usefulness, they do not meet the need to describe elements of a foreign language program in broader and more general terms. Descriptions of course sequences and learning activities are more valuable for this purpose.

Descriptions of Course Sequences

Descriptions of course sequences provide concise outlines of the essential characteristics of specific courses of study. They may contain several elements; e.g., course descriptions, special characteristics, time allotments, and materials.

Course Designations

Course designations are titles. They are most commonly expressed in terms of a specific language and broad levels of instruction; for example, "Third-Year French," "Intermediate German," and "Spanish 5." The value of a designation can be increased if it describes briefly the nature or the purpose of the course; for example, "Conversational French," "Scientific German," and "Spanish for Native Speakers."

Special Characteristics of Courses

A description of the special characteristics of courses may include information about such elements as the content of instruction, pacing, or whether the courses will be recognized for college credit. The description may also include criteria for student performance and comparisons with the characteristics of other courses in the same language.

Time Allotments

The time allotment is given in terms of minutes per day and days per week for each course. This is particularly important in developing an understanding of courses offered before grade nine, when time allotments may vary widely.

Materials

A brief description of the materials used in each course includes the designation of specific content or units of work at each course level. The equipment intended for use with the materials in the classroom may also be listed. This equipment may include overhead projector, screen, tape recorder, phonograph, filmstrip and/or movie projector, tape splicing kit, and so forth.

Other Items to Be Included in Course Descriptions

There may be local factors that significantly affect the nature of instruction. Descriptions of such factors may include a listing of community resources, such as museums, libraries, consulates, archives, or landmarks; names of outstanding persons who are available as classroom resource persons; and lists of extracurricular activities. Or they may mention special programs, such as a provision for high school students who are outstanding in a foreign language to assist teachers at the junior high or elementary school levels or to act as tutors to individual students.

Chart Form for Course Sequence Description

The description of course sequences may be organized into an outline or a chart that is brief enough to fit on a single sheet of paper. The advantages of the chart form are that (1) the information presented is easy to read, thus facilitating overview and comparison; and (2) charts may be easily and inexpensively reproduced for wide distribution.

Copies of the course sequence chart can be useful in many ways. Teachers may feel a sense of security in having their responsibility for course content specified. Making the charts available to students may help them to understand teachers' expectations. School counselors, administrators, and parents may find that the charts clarify the nature of each foreign language course. Such charts obviously improve the articulation process between elementary and high schools, particularly when separate school districts are involved. In addition, the charts may help college personnel to interpret the accomplishments of entering students.

Descriptions of Learning Activities

Foreign languages are currently taught according to many different approaches and methods of instruction. Often the name of a specific approach, such as "direct method," "see-say," or "audio-lingual," is used to designate a wide variety of learning processes. To avoid misinterpretation and misunderstanding, descriptions of significant learning activities may be used instead. The following two examples illustrate this procedure:

1. Students speak in choral groups, often imitating what the teacher says.
2. Students read short paragraphs and answer questions about them in writing.

In addition to helping students, parents, counselors, and administrators gain a clear picture of what a particular foreign language program is like, these descriptions may help teachers in the process of planning and conducting their lessons. The following list of learning activities provides guidance to the teacher while at the same time describing the nature of the program.

The student will do the following:

1. Repeat the account of a brief incident as he hears it read, phrase by phrase.
2. Retell aloud such an incident after having repeated it.
3. Participate, with a fluent speaker, in a dialogue about a specific situation.
4. Read a familiar text aloud.
5. Write a familiar text from dictation.
6. Rewrite a simple narrative containing familiar material, making simple changes in tense.
7. Do orally and in writing exercises that involve a limited manipulation of number, gender, word order, tense, replacement, negation, interrogation, command, comparison, and possession.[1]

It should be emphasized that while descriptions of course sequences or learning activities may be a helpful means for communicating the general nature of certain courses, they are not substitutes for the establishment of behavioral objectives and proficiency statements or for the agreement to use common tests or textbooks.

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[1] *Language Instruction.* Prepared by Brooks, Hockett, and O'Rourke, pp. 24-25.

chapter 8

Adoption of Textbook Materials

Ideally, a course of study in a foreign language should be established by accomplishing the following tasks in the following order:

1. Assessment of needs
2. Determination of goals
3. Sequencing of desired proficiencies
4. Preparation of instructional objectives
5. Selection of textbook materials to implement the objectives

Actually, the process of building a course of study seldom takes place in this way. Too often the first step in establishing a foreign language program may be selection of textbook materials. That selection then constitutes not only the first but also the one and only step in defining the curriculum.

The concept of "textbook" in foreign language education has expanded in recent years to include not only the textbook but also audiotapes, recordings, workbooks, picture cards, tests, posters, films, and a variety of other materials, all of which comprise an instructional package. Publishers are fond of describing these packages as "multimedia," "integrated," and "sequential." Packages sometimes contain sufficient content to be used for six or more years of instruction. Many publishers claim not only that the content is presented in a sequence effective for learning but also that the sequence provides systematic review of vocabulary and grammatical concepts. All claim that their packages offer an effective means for implementing a successful foreign language program.

Each package of materials consists of a unique body of content. This content includes the specific topics on which communication is to be centered and the specific vocabulary, grammar, and phonology to be studied. The nature and extent of this content as well as the sequence in which the content is presented are different for each package.

Thus, once teachers choose a particular package, they are largely bound to it, for it is not easy for them to create their own sequences using some lessons from one package and some from another.

Foreign language teachers are used to this restriction, however, for they have generally followed the instructional sequence of only one basic textbook. Because the new packages are so complete, teachers seldom feel the need to search for supplementary materials. Thus, even this area of choice – the freedom to choose supplementary materials – is reduced when a modern package of basic materials is selected.

Ideally, teachers should plan the foreign language course content before they select materials. Instead, they usually choose the textbook package, accepting it as the plan for content. If they have chosen well, the content of the materials is compatible with the program's objectives – whether these have been expressed or not. However, most of the foreign language packages currently on the market suffer one major deficiency – they do not state instructional objectives in terms of expected student behaviors nor do they describe expected proficiencies.

Thus, for example, students in the beginning classes of two different teachers may "cover" the same number of units in the same package of materials; yet, they may not be able to use that content in the same way. Indeed, after a certain amount of study, the accomplishments of the two classes may differ widely.

When objectives or expected proficiencies have not been defined, the items in a single package of basic materials determine the content of instruction. However, these items do not determine what students are expected to do with that content.

Obviously, if continuity, sequence, and smooth articulation are to be achieved in a foreign language program, both content and proficiency must be defined. If this has not been done, a single textbook package can do nothing more than ensure uniformity of content in a foreign language program.

Only one package of basic materials should be adopted for use in any one foreign language sequence. This is important, even when the entire program is taught by one teacher. When more than one teacher is involved – whether in the same school, in different schools in the same district, or in different districts – a mutual agreement to use a single textbook package is even more desirable.

chapter 9

Adoption of Achievement Tests

Teachers have long been admonished: "Don't teach to the test!" This admonition deserves to be challenged. If a test accurately measures achievement of desired objectives, then the teacher should indeed teach to the test; that is, he should provide learning activities that give students the opportunity to practice the behavior that will ultimately be evaluated. The learning activities should not only have content that corresponds to the evaluation but they should also be cast in the same format as the evaluation.

Tests should be constructed to sample specific concepts or skills contained in given instructional objectives. The teacher should not, of course, limit his teaching or the student's practice to the specific items sampled in the test.

There are four major types of language tests: prognostic, progress, achievement, and proficiency. Each has its own characteristics and applications. This chapter deals with progress and achievement tests only. A progress test measures a student's or group's mastery of concepts taught in the classroom and language laboratory as part of a specific set of materials or course of study. An achievement test measures what the student or group has learned without reference to any specific course of study or set of materials.

The performance of students in the foreign language classroom is under continuous evaluation by the teacher. Such evaluation may be uncoordinated – that is, it may be limited to what an individual teacher does in his own classroom independent of other teachers – or it may be coordinated as part of a specified course of study.

Uncoordinated Testing

Whether a teacher wants to or not, he is constantly forming and communicating evaluation of student performance. When he corrects a verb form, a pronunciation, or a spelling; when he gives a brief word of praise; and even when he makes no comment, he is communicating his assessment of performance. He may also record his assessment as part of a testing program.

Teacher-made Tests

Beyond everyday evaluation, many teachers create more formalized means of assessment. These may consist of brief quizzes or midterm or semester examinations to measure progress on specific units of work or achievement at key points in the course of study.

Tests Accompanying Textbook Materials

Teachers also use tests that accompany basic foreign language teaching materials. These may include unit quizzes as well as tests of larger bodies of content. They are usually easy to administer and score. However, they rarely specify expected performance; rather, they are usually limited to testing only the student's knowledge of the course content.

Disadvantages of Uncoordinated Testing

Although every teacher should be encouraged to maintain a program of continuous evaluation, tests created by an individual teacher are likely to be highly subjective if they are created independently of the goals and objectives of his colleagues in the department and in the district. Such tests are not likely to be coordinated with the foreign language program and will result in evaluations that do little more than reflect each teacher's own emphasis or point of view.

Tests that accompany basic textbooks are often objective, but if the interpretation of the results is highly subjective, these tests may be of little aid in evaluating a student's proficiency. Likewise, if the published tests do not reflect the objectives of the district's foreign language program, the results of such tests may present an erroneous picture of the success of that program.

Coordinated Testing

An effective means for establishing agreed-upon standards for measuring expected student achievement within a given foreign language program is the use of a common system of evaluation by all teachers in that program. Basic to such a system is an agreed-upon series of tests and a common set of criteria for interpreting results. An agreed-upon series of tests may be acquired either through the purchase of standardized tests or through the preparation of tests by teachers participating in the program.

Standardized Tests

Several standardized tests of foreign language achievement are available for purchase.[1] Prepared by measurement specialists, each standardized test undergoes a process of careful refinement before it is published. The test is administered to a sample of students who are representative of the population for whom the test is intended. After the instrument has shown itself to be a reliable measure, norms (i.e., standards) are established. These standards show in terms of test scores the achievement that can be expected of students after a specified amount of foreign language study.

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[1] See Appendix A.

The advantages of standardized tests are twofold: (1) valuable teacher time is not required to prepare the tests; and (2) a standard is provided by which the achievement of individual students may be compared with national norms.

Standardized tests are designed primarily as achievement tests; that is, they attempt to measure a student's ability or proficiency without regard to a specific course of study or set of materials. As such, they may not reflect some of the objectives of a local program, or they may give undue stress to some objectives while deemphasizing the importance of others. Because they rely on a great number of courses of study for baseline data, such tests are not considered reliable until students have all the commonest forms of a language at their disposal. In other words, such tests cannot be used during or at the end of most beginning courses, when both the need for evaluation and the enrollment are at their peak.

Standardized tests are not intended to measure the achievement of individual students, nor are they designed to provide a means whereby specific problems (i.e., learning deficiencies) of individual students may be diagnosed. Furthermore, the objectives measured by standardized tests rarely match the objectives, explicit or implied, of a local foreign language program.[2] The mismatch is often so great that using a standardized test in a foreign language program can be as unproductive as applying the rules of baseball to score a football game.

The most effective use of standardized tests can probably be made when a school or school district, or perhaps an individual teacher, wants to know how students in a program compare *as a group* with similar students throughout the nation. Again, the value of such a comparison is questionable unless the objectives of the local program are parallel to those measured by the standardized test and unless the student population in the local situation resembles closely the sample that was used in constructing norms for the standardized test.

Tests Prepared at the Local Level

Tests should be based on the behavioral objectives or statements of proficiency for a given course of study. The objectives or proficiency statements constitute explicit descriptions of what students are expected to achieve; hence, they literally dictate the nature of the test Constructing the test is a process of deciding what items are to be included and editing and integrating those items into a logical testing sequence; pretesting, analyzing pretest results to determine defective items, and replacing defective items; and establishing norms. Alternate forms of a test may also be needed; if so, the process is repeated for each alternate required. Although this process is not an easy one, the result will be an accurate and valid measurement of student proficiency.

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[2] Instructional objectives in terms of specific student behavior are rarely published by those who prepare standardized tests.

As with the creation of objectives or statements of proficiency, all teachers in a foreign language program should be involved in the preparation of tests for the students in that program. If the teachers are brought together in a workshop, they can all contribute test items after a general outline has been created for the test series. If items are written by only a few teachers, then the other teachers should act as an advisory body. Before establishing the content of specific tests in a series, it may be helpful to decide how many tests are to be prepared and at what point in the course of study they are to be given. It is best to begin by preparing a test that is to be used early in the instructional program in which items on each of the foreign language skills may be included. The effectiveness of this test can then be assessed before others in the series are prepared.

A major advantage of involving all teachers in the test preparation process is that they may actually be able to administer test segments as they are written. This will not only serve as a way of evaluating the effectiveness of individual items, but it will also help the teachers determine whether the test is satisfactory; i.e., that it does measure how well the students have attained the objectives set for the class.

A school, school district, or combination of districts may prepare tests that suit their needs. As the tests are administered, records of performance can be maintained and normative data established. These data will have far more value for teachers than the norms that accompany standardized tests.

Many of the advantages of preparing achievement tests on the local level have already been stated. Paramount among these is the fact that preparing them brings teachers together to talk about performance expectations. Such dialogues are the first and most important steps in smooth articulation. Beyond this, these achievement tests tend to measure what most of the teachers involved feel is important. The tests tend to be accepted even by teachers who hold philosophies of foreign language education that are at variance from the others. Further, the tests can be modified to increase their effectiveness, to allow for the special needs of students, and to correspond to changes in the objectives for the program.

A viable testing program should be based upon clearly stated objectives and should include a variety of testing procedures, including subjective and objective evaluations. Considerable care must be exercised in selecting or constructing tests, and the results obtained with those tests must be recorded and maintained as a means of evaluating student progress and the effectiveness of the program.

SECTION III

IMPLEMENTING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM

Successful implementation of a foreign language program requires the cooperative efforts of all members of a school's educational staff and of the students, parents, and other members of the community. This section of the Framework offers some suggestions for putting into effect a well-designed program.

chapter 10

Coordination of Foreign Language Programs

Every team needs leadership if it is to function as a team. Successful articulation in a foreign language program comes about through the cooperative efforts of many persons, but the responsibility for coordination should rest with one individual alone. For example, if a program exists in only one high school, the department head or an administrator can coordinate the program by working with the teachers in the department.

Coordination is more complicated when language courses are taught in two or more schools and at both the elementary and high school levels. In this case, who will coordinate the planning so that one course level builds logically on the previous one? Who will see that the materials and teaching methods used are consistent with a planned sequence? Teachers, left on their own, will use a variety of textbooks and methods to achieve differing objectives. Multiplicity of purpose and diversity in implementation can be eliminated only when a qualified person is assigned to coordinate the entire foreign language program. His title may be coordinator, consultant, supervisor, or director, but his role is clear.

Duties of the Coordinator

The coordinator works with energy, patience, flexibility, and skill to mold a heterogeneous group of teachers and students into a homogeneous language instruction program. He must use more persuasion than authority and must be creative in planning, competent in implementation, and resourceful in interpretation. The effective foreign language coordinator may do any or all of the following in his efforts to develop a well-organized program:

1. Work with committees to develop courses of study and curriculum guides, and plan course content and sequence in cooperation with these committees.
2. Confer with teachers, improving morale by providing recognition and praise for effective teaching and by discussing solutions to instructional problems.
3. Provide orientation and training for new teachers.

4. Arrange for teachers' meetings, demonstration lessons, and interclass visitations.
5. Assist in the initiation and planning of institutes and inservice workshops.
6. Visit foreign language classes to observe learning conditions.
7. Seek solutions to the problems of student learning and motivation.
8. Assist in the review of criteria for evaluating students, discussing problems with teachers and helping to create or select and use evaluation instruments.
9. Represent the teacher's interests in the central administrative office and interpret to the teacher administrative policies and requirements.
10. Advise teachers and principals on the selection of instructional materials for classrooms and language laboratories.
11. Serve as adviser and resource person to the school or district business office in purchasing supplies and equipment for those in his area of responsibility.
12. Assist in developing a library of current professional books and journals.
13. Keep abreast of the latest legislation affecting foreign language education, and ensure that his district complies with legal requirements.
14. Screen candidates for foreign language teaching vacancies.
15. Assist in providing leadership for professional groups related to foreign language education, and encourage language teachers to join local, regional, state, and national language organizations.
16. Interpret the foreign language program to the community.
17. Seek outside consultant help (from the State Department of Education, the office of the appropriate county superintendent of schools, and the like) when special assistance is required.

Allocation of Time for Coordination

Large school districts often employ a full-time coordinator while smaller districts usually do not. The amount of time allocated to coordination is generally determined by the number of schools involved. The dilemma of the part-time coordinator is acute. How much time, on a daily basis, is he to apportion to foreign languages – assuming he has other responsibilities as well? If he must teach as well as coordinate, then his schedule is fairly inflexible. How is he to visit classes that are in session at the same time he is teaching? How often is he to surrender his own classes to someone else so that he can travel inside or outside the district? On the other hand, if a part-time foreign language coordinator is also a coordinator of another subject, a part-time counselor, or a part-time administrator, then it is easier for him to visit all the foreign language classes in his district. Effective coordination takes place not when the coordinator is restricted to a rigid schedule, but rather when he is free to visit classrooms and perform his other functions according to need.

chapter 11

Placement of Students in the Foreign Language Program

Placement is the process of assigning students to appropriate levels of instruction in appropriate courses of study. The term usually refers to students who have already begun instruction and who are transferring from one class or one school to another. However, the term may be used equally well to describe the process of assigning students who are new to foreign language study.

When students first indicate their desire to study a foreign language, it is important to help them choose a course of study that is appropriate to their needs. In some schools, there may be a wide selection of foreign language offerings; in others, especially in elementary schools, the selection may be limited.

Helping Students Select Foreign Language Courses

Regardless of the number of foreign language courses, all students and parents should be provided with information that describes the various offerings. This information may be printed in the form of a brochure, including excerpts from the descriptions of course sequences, or it may be presented orally at meetings or in individual student conferences with teachers, counselors, or administrators.

Predicting Success in Foreign Language Study

A wide range of criteria, from I.Q. to scores on standardized tests of arithmetic achievement, have been used as the basis for excluding large segments of the school population from foreign language study. Most of these criteria have little correlation with a student's ability to acquire skill in using a foreign language, but they do provide an "objective" means for implementing the popular prejudice that foreign language study is only for the intellectual elite.

Teachers and counselors should use extreme caution in attempting to predict a student's ability to succeed in a foreign language course. If it is desirable to have on hand some means for determining aptitude for foreign language study, then a standardized instrument, such as the *Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery,* should be used.

When the scores from the test are combined with a student's grade point average, a fairly reliable prediction of success can be made.[1] But if a school operates on the principle that foreign language study has value for all students, including those who may not turn out to be high-level achievers, then there is probably little justification for administering a foreign language aptitude test. Rather, *any student who indicates that he wants to learn a foreign language should be encouraged to enroll in a foreign language course and give it a try.*

Placing Students Within the Continuum of Study

Schools and school districts should ensure that students progress in their foreign language study according to a continuous step-by-step sequence. Statements of objectives or expected proficiencies and series of agreed-upon evaluation instruments are ready-made means for evaluating the proficiency of any student. If such aids are not available, then some provision must be made to ensure appropriate placement when continuing students leave one class to enter another or when students from one school system enter another.

Elementary schools that provide sequential courses of study in foreign languages often employ the technique of assigning pupils to the various levels of foreign language instruction according to their proficiency levels rather than according to their grade levels. When this is done, each student is placed at the level of foreign language instruction that is appropriate to his proficiency. However, the student's age should also be considered in the placement process.

Of critical importance is the placement of junior high school students who have had foreign language instruction as elementary school pupils. To require these students to enroll in a beginning class at the junior high school level can completely undermine the efficacy of an elementary school foreign language program. Personnel in junior high schools should recognize in two ways the skills that these students bring with them. They may evaluate their proficiency and place them appropriately in the regular program, or, when there is a large influx of students who have just graduated from elementary school, special tracks (i.e., special courses) may be created that are designed especially to build on the skills that these students already possess.

Transfer students who enter during the school year also deserve careful placement. Either students' records should contain information regarding their proficiency or an appropriate number of personnel in the foreign language department of the receiving school should evaluate each student for proper placement.

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[1] Paul Pimsleur, Donald M. Sundland, and Ruth D. McIntyre, *Under-Achievement in Foreign Language Learning.* New York: Modern Language Assn. of America, 1966.

Many junior high schools offer beginning and intermediate classes on a nongraded basis, enrolling students with a wide range of age, grade, and ability levels. If the junior high schools in a given area are not cooperating with the senior high schools in that area in a program of instruction that is designed according to agreed-upon objectives, proficiencies, or evaluation instruments, then the students involved may begin high school at various levels of achievement. This diversity is obviously a handicap to articulation. What are some positive practices that will help compensate for the fact that the junior and senior high schools are not participating in a cooperatively planned program? What practices will help make a smooth transition for the incoming students from junior high school? The following suggestions in this regard are directed to school personnel with administrative, counseling, and teaching responsibilities:

1. Administrators may provide special classes that are limited to students who have studied foreign language in junior high school. Obviously, this should be done only if it would be detrimental to the incoming students to be integrated with students whose previous foreign language experience was acquired at the senior high school level.
2. Counselors may request junior high schools to furnish data regarding foreign language coursework completed, test scores, and teachers' recommendations for placing students. Foreign language teachers should meet with counselors and make their recommendations known.
3. In planning work for their new classes, teachers may carefully adjust instruction to the needs of the students. Teachers' attitudes strongly influence the adjustment of students who are new to the senior high school. An encouraging and purposeful approach will help students who may be overwhelmed by the new situation. A feeling of security can be fostered if the teacher mentions personal acquaintanceship with specific junior high school teachers. Students may also benefit from an orientation that develops their understanding of the senior high school teacher's procedures and expectations regarding assignments, study habits, tests, and grading practices.

chapter 12

Scheduling of Foreign Language Instruction

Just as the grinding of prescription lenses must be done to fit the individual, so should schedules be designed to meet the instructional needs of students.

Time Allotments

Many factors affect the amount of time that should be allotted to the study of foreign languages. Among these are the ages and needs of the students, the objectives of the course, and the nature and organization of the school curriculum. In general, elementary schools are already able to provide flexibility in scheduling, and many high schools are experimenting to achieve a similar flexibility by eliminating reliance upon the traditional but rigid bell schedule.

Elementary Schools

Time allotments for foreign language instruction in the elementary school vary from school to school in number of hours per week. Whatever the amount of this allotment, instruction should be scheduled on a daily basis. This is especially important if the pupils are to make continuous progress.

Instruction may be provided by the regular classroom teacher or by a teacher who travels from one classroom to another.

Instruction by the regular classroom teacher. When the regular classroom teacher teaches the foreign language, scheduling may be very flexible. Some teachers choose to integrate the instruction into other subjects or activities; others prefer to keep it separate. Whichever the approach, teachers should remember that regularity and frequency of practice are critical to the learning of any skill, including proficiency in a foreign language.

Flexibility cannot be maintained, of course, if the teacher uses television as part of the foreign language course. In this case, the time for the lesson is rigidly set by the broadcast schedule.

Teachers and administrators ought to be reminded that foreign languages should be taught only by teachers who are competent in the language concerned. The assumption is sometimes made that because the pupils are young and are in the beginning stages of language study, their teacher need not be as proficient as the teacher of advanced students. This is simply not so. If the elementary school teacher is not fluent in a foreign language, he should not be expected or allowed to teach it.

Instruction by traveling teachers. A teacher who is fluent in a foreign language may teach in more than one classroom. In some cases, this is a regular classroom teacher who, in addition to teaching a foreign language to his own pupils, instructs one or two other classes, perhaps at the same grade level. In other cases, a specialist teacher is employed for the sole purpose of providing foreign language instruction.

The larger the number of classes served by one specialist teacher, the more difficult – and hence rigid – is the scheduling. If necessary, however, visitation schedules can be varied, often by exchanging the time allocations of two classes.

Grades Seven and Eight

California law now requires that foreign language courses be offered in grades seven and eight. However, the nature of scheduling in elementary schools that include grades seven and eight may differ from the scheduling in junior high schools that include these grades.

Generally, continuity is easily provided for elementary school pupils entering grade seven who have had foreign language instruction at preceding grade levels. When grades seven and eight are part of the junior high school, provision should be made to ensure that seventh grade students who are continuing their language study are not enrolled in classes with seventh grade students who are neophytes.

High Schools

Most high schools schedule foreign language courses for approximately five hours of instruction per week. This time is usually apportioned in equal daily periods. A strong argument can be made for maintaining this allotment and this apportionment despite the current experimentation with modular and flexible scheduling.

Because foreign language learning consists of acquiring a set of skills, regular and frequent practice in these skills is required. In this, the foreign language learner is like the athlete in training, the musician, or any other professional who wishes to improve a skill: all need regular and frequent practice. When schools adopt flexible scheduling, the administration often assumes that every department will want to vary the amount of time it allocates daily to instruction.

Because of the nature of their subject, however, some foreign language teachers may not want to use flexible scheduling.

Clustering of Courses

Another kind of flexibility in scheduling deserves to be investigated by administrators. This has to do with the clustering of various courses so that courses at the same level may be offered at the same time.

Because individual students learn at individual rates, there is a wide range of difference in proficiency among students, even shortly after the beginning of a foreign language class. Those who are progressing more slowly are indeed progressing, but because their progress trails that of others, they often become discouraged and usually give up foreign language study as soon as they can. If these students could be grouped so that their progress was not continually being compared with that of the faster-learning students, or if individualized programs could be developed to allow students to move at their own pace, they could feel joy and pride in their success.

This kind of grouping can be accomplished when classes in the same language and at the same level are scheduled at the same time. Let us assume that a school has two Spanish teachers on its staff and that there are four beginning Spanish classes in a year. Traditionally, these four classes would be distributed throughout the day, and all four might well be assigned to one of the teachers. The reasons for such an arrangement relate more to administrative and teacher convenience than to student benefits. Let us assume, however, that the four classes are scheduled so that two take place in the early morning and two in the late morning, with each of the teachers conducting one of the classes at each of these times. Now an element of flexibility is introduced that would otherwise be impossible.

First of all, the teachers may alternate in teaching the classes. This can provide a salutary effect on articulation, since to do this they must talk to one another; indeed, even plan with one another. More importantly, however, they can group students by shifting them from one class to another. Thus, those students who are learning more slowly may be placed in one class and the faster learners in the other. In this case the teachers might still want to alternate in teaching the four groups, or they might discover other valuable procedures that would be facilitated by the flexibility achieved through cluster scheduling.

Obviously, there are many undesirable side effects and even negative aspects to this kind of scheduling, but experimentation in this area is important for foreign language education.

chapter 13

Use of Paraprofessionals

Thousands of paraprofessionals are now assisting teachers in California classrooms. These assistants come from colleges, high schools, and the community. Some are paid; others contribute their services on a volunteer basis. Among the college students, many are fulfilling assignments for their training as future teachers.

A paraprofessional is a noncertificated person who assists directly in the educational process. The term designates classroom aides and assistants, tutors, and community workers in the field of education, but it does not refer to secretarial, custodial, or other noncertificated school service personnel.

In the foreign language classroom, paraprofessionals may be utilized in several major ways:

1. Tutoring small groups and individuals
2. Performing administrative and clerical duties
3. Preparing instructional materials according to the instructions given by the teacher

Paraprofessionals work under the supervision of a credentialed person. They are not substitutes for classroom teachers, whose academic competence and proficiency in foreign language are essential to successful instruction.

Paraprofessionals may be assigned a wide range of duties in the foreign language classroom. Although schools or school districts may wish to define the general role of classroom aides, the nature and extent of their activities should be flexible. Teachers should be encouraged to experiment and search for increasingly effective ways to use assistants in the classroom.

Because classroom aides may not assume responsibility for planning or executing the instructional program, aides should generally be assigned only tasks that the teacher can easily supervise.

Few classroom aides intend to make careers of their jobs. They are usually high school or college students or even parents who are seeking short-term or part-time employment. Thus, their length of service may be short. This means that teachers must frequently train new aides. A teacher cannot merely assign a task to a new aide and expect it to be well performed. In addition to providing aides with an overall orientation to aims, objectives, and procedures, teachers should explain each assigned task thoroughly. When the task is completed, the teacher should help the aide evaluate his performance.

Assigning Paraprofessionals Duties in the Foreign Language Classroom

As foreign language teachers become more experienced in using the services of paraprofessionals in the classroom, they will discover a wide range of tasks to which aides may be assigned. The following suggestions indicate a few possibilities.

Tutoring

To help individuals or groups of students learn specific course content, aides may do the following:

1. Provide oral or written models for student imitation.
2. Direct oral or written pattern drilling.
3. Cue responses in oral or written practice of dialogues and conversations.
4. Assist students in the execution of assigned practice, including homework.
5. Help students with special problems in specific skills.
6. Assist the teacher in demonstrations and other instructional presentations, field trips, and club activities.

Administration and "Housekeeping"

To help relieve the teacher of certain routine administrative or "housekeeping" tasks, aides may do the following:

1. Score tests.
2. Correct homework.
3. Operate equipment.
4. Prepare bulletin boards.
5. Take attendance.
6. Record grades.

Preparation of Materials

To help in the preparation of materials, aides may do the following:

1. Type worksheets, tests, and the like.
2. Prepare multiple copies.
3. Mount visual aids.

4. Record and edit audiotapes.
5. Organize and file collections of visual aids.
6. Research availability of supplementary materials.

Selecting Paraprofessionals

School districts generally assign the responsibility for selecting paraprofessionals to the district's personnel division, to a personnel commission, or to principals. However, foreign language aides should be selected by the foreign language department, even when their function is limited to the performance of administrative and clerical duties.

One member of the foreign language department should be made responsible for the evaluation of the foreign language proficiency of each candidate for employment. The candidate may prove himself qualified as an aide either (1) by scoring above a specified level on a standardized foreign language proficiency test; or (2) by demonstrating a level of proficiency that will satisfy a committee of teachers of the foreign language in question.

Whatever means are used for evaluating proficiency, special attention should be given to the candidate's oral fluency. Unless he has attained a high level of oral skill, a paraprofessional is of only limited use to a foreign language teacher.

Several factors in addition to proficiency should be considered in selecting foreign language paraprofessionals:

1. Enthusiasm for foreign language education
2. Willingness to participate in preservice and inservice education
3. Ability to be present regularly for designated days and hours of employment
4. Ability to relate well to students and teachers.

Training Foreign Language Paraprofessionals

Most paraprofessionals remain at their jobs for a limited time. If a school or school district is to expect a consistently high level of performance from its paraprofessionals, it should involve them in a training program. Such a program should have two components: preservice training and inservice training.

Preservice Training

The following elements may be included in the preservice component:

1. Orientation to the total school program
   a. Philosophies, aims, objectives
   b. Procedures

2. Definition of the general role of aides in the foreign language program
    - a. Philosophy of foreign language instruction
    - b. Methodology and materials employed
3. Orientation to specific tasks to be performed in assigned classrooms
    - a. Tutorial skills
    - b. Clerical and administrative skills
    - c. Skills in preparing materials as directed by the teacher

Inservice Training

Because the preservice training of paraprofessionals is likely to be brief, continuous inservice training is also necessary. This may take place in meetings and workshops for groups of aides, or it may be provided informally by each classroom teacher.

When the teacher alone is responsible for the inservice training of the aides who work with him, he should be certain to do the following:

1. Reinforce the knowledge, concepts, and skills developed in the preservice training.
2. Review frequently the effectiveness of the aide's performance and discuss it with him.

Evaluating the Effectiveness of Paraprofessionals

Several studies conducted on reading skills in English indicate gains in student learning when paraprofessionals are employed.[1] Whether the use of foreign language paraprofessionals has a similar effect is yet to be determined.

Although districts and schools may not be prepared to conduct studies that measure increases in learning resulting from employment of foreign language paraprofessionals, they can evaluate the performance of individual classroom aides. This can be accomplished most effectively if teachers and aides know exactly what aides are supposed to do. A list of duties, described in terms of specific behaviors to be expected of aides, can be most helpful to the evaluation process. Whether or not such lists exist for an entire school, the specific duties to be performed in the classroom should be established cooperatively by the teacher and the aide who will be working together. Both the teacher and the aide should understand the acceptable level of performance before any task is begun. The time spent in defining these levels before evaluation is begun will help to avoid misunderstandings at the time of evaluation.

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[1] Frank Riessman and Alan Gartner, "New Careers and Pupil Learning." *CTA Journal,* LXV (March, 1969), 6-9.

Using Students as Classroom Aides

Teachers have long used the services of students to perform many of the routine administrative and "housekeeping" tasks of classroom management, but they have been reluctant to have students perform tasks related to instruction or the preparation of materials.

While he is in school, each student should spend his time in activities that help him learn. Teachers should experiment more actively in using students as teaching assistants because research indicates that when a student is placed in the role of tutor, his own learning is increased. Both the student and his tutor should be consulted regarding their feelings about the tutoring arrangement.

Quick learners may be used to assist slow learners in the same class; advanced-level students may be used to help beginners; or high school students may assist in elementary or junior high school classes. The possibilities are unlimited, and the potential for improving instruction seems great. Further experience will help to provide evidence of the value of this use of students in the classroom.

SECTION IV

INDIVIDUALIZING INSTRUCTION

The structure of education in the United States is designed for instructing groups, not individuals. Yet, educators are well aware that only individuals learn. The problem, then, is to organize the instruction of groups so that individuals may learn at their individual rates, according to their individual styles, and to meet their individual needs.

70-71

chapter 14

Programmed Learning and Computer-assisted Instruction

It is in the nature of man to learn. The central task of education is to determine what ought to be learned and to develop means to maximize the effectiveness of instruction.

Programmed learning (PL) refers to the planned sequencing of instruction to provide opportunities for learning that are as effective as possible for each learner. Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) utilizes electromechanical means to modify a programmed sequence of instruction according to the needs of individual learners.

The success of PL and CAI can be judged by the extent to which the following principles are implemented:

1. The subject to be taught is thoroughly analyzed, and the most efficient means of presentation are employed. Studies of the following aspects of foreign language instruction are available: linguistic analyses of the native language and the language to be learned, with a systematic comparison of the two; clear specification of the skills and modalities involved in language learning; a comparison between the acquisition of the native language and the acquisition of a second language; the most effective order of presentation; and the kinds of activities required of the learner to achieve fluency.[1]
2. The students who are to participate in the language learning experience are evaluated in terms of their aptitudes for successful language study and in terms of their capacities for developing self-critical abilities. Tests of this type in the foreign language field are now available and are widely used.[2]
3. The overall objectives of the instructional program are clearly stated, and the behavioral abilities of the student at each plateau within the program are specified. Some efforts have

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[1] *Spanish: Contemporary Methodology.* Summarized by David M. Feldman and Walter D. Kline. Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell Publishing Co., Inc., 1969.

[2] For example, Paul Pimsleur, *Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery,* New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1966; and John Carroll and Stanley Sapon, *Modern Language Aptitude Tests,* New York: Psychological Corp., 1959.

been made in this area in the foreign language field, but more needs to be done.[3]

4. Step-increment learning is the basic procedure used.[4] Each step of the program must be performable exclusively on the basis of the knowledge and ability gained through the preceding steps in the program.
5. The student's progress through the program is controlled in the sense that the learner may not proceed from one step to another until he has acquired the appropriate skills. However, the student himself is taught to be the judge of his performance and is provided with the means for self-pacing.

By teaching in accordance with these principles, a teacher in the classroom can be offering programmed instruction. However, under these conditions the individual learner is unable to control the pacing of the program, and he is not able to review immediately any of his own weak points. These principles can be implemented only in individualized instruction, and such individualized instruction can only take place between an individual tutor and a student.

The learner should be active rather than passive, with much of his activity consisting of frequent repetition of the material. Practice must take place in the widest possible range of contexts, and positive rewards should be provided as correct responses are given.

Clearly, this ideal student-tutor relationship is difficult to achieve in the mass educational process. With programmed learning, however, it is now possible to attain this objective.

Cybernetic Aspects of Instructional Technology

In 1950 Norbert Wiener published his important analysis of the application of technology to the resolution of human problems.[5] From his analysis, one can conclude that the real purpose for applying electromechanical concepts and equipment to modern instruction is to liberate the teacher from purely mechanical and physical functions so that he may participate in those creative activities that no machine can perform.

Learning specialists tell us that the human being can succeed in learning only when he is able, by means of "feedback," to adjust his learning approach to the requirements imposed by the learning task.

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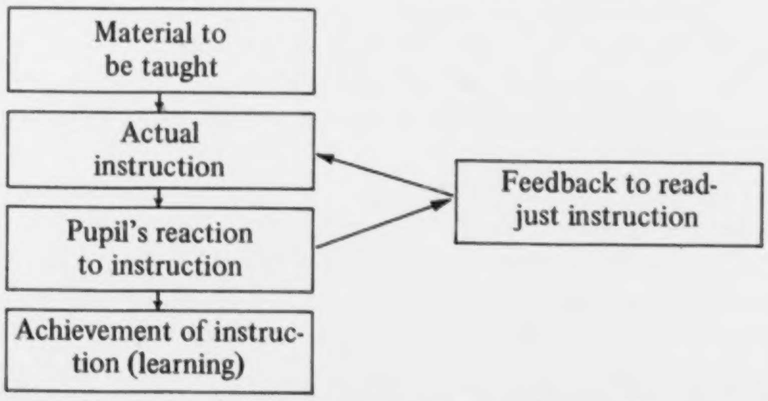
[3] The best list in terms of language proficiency is the set of focuses used in the MLA-ETS proficiency tests.

[4] Cf. John Carroll, *Programmed Self-Instruction in Mandarin Chinese.* Wellesley, Mass.: Language Testing Fund, 1963.

[5] Norbert Wiener, *The Human Use of Human Beings.* Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1950.

This may be represented by the following diagram:


Material to be taught
Actual instruction
Pupil's reaction to instruction
Achievement of instruction (learning)
Feedback to readjust instruction

The experienced classroom teacher will readily admit that, although he may possess the theoretical and practical knowledge necessary to organize the material to be taught, student achievement often fails to reach the goals he has set. The teacher cannot constantly adjust learning procedures and methods according to the minute-to-minute feedback from each of his 30 or 40 students.

Better results are often obtained when the teacher elects to assist individual pupils on a one-to-one tutorial basis. Here the teacher is in fact making just such minute-to-minute adjustments, and learning is much more definitely assured. It is not that the teacher does not know how to translate this one-to-one efficiency into the one-to-40 situation in the classroom; rather it is that to do so requires sensory capacities and speed and accuracy of response that are impossible for a single human being.

The lightning rapidity of the computer, of course, handles such problems easily, but no matter how awesome its performance, the computer cannot replace the teacher in establishing educational objectives, creating and organizing materials, and motivating pupils to learn. The purpose of PL-CAI, then, is to define more clearly which functions are most effectively performed by the teacher and which functions are most effectively performed by the machine.

The science of cybernetics, by focusing upon the usefulness of electromechanical devices within a clearly defined area, suggests a "rehumanization" of the teacher. That is, it suggests that the teacher may be relieved of the routine, mechanical aspects of instruction to relate directly to students. When teachers understand instructional technology, the proper use of its equipment, and the limits of its functions, they need no longer approach it with trepidation. Rather, they can appreciate the important ways in which it enriches the educational experience and assists them in realizing the full measure of their talents.

The Psychological Basis of Instructional Technology

To further understand the intellectual basis of PL-CAI, we should examine various relationships between the teacher and his students. Two fundamental types of relationship may be distinguished: interactive and one-way. Within each relationship, two functions can be noted: expressive and instrumental. Each has a specific place in the educational process.

The one-way relationship, as exemplified in television instruction or the traditional lecture, limits the amount of feedback from the student. It may succeed in transferring large quantities of information to large numbers of learners but it is one-way; in this situation, the teacher cannot respond to the special needs of individual learners. In the interactive relationship, exemplified by classroom discussion or small-group tutorial sessions, the learner profits from his role as an active communicator, but less information is imparted and to fewer students.

The expressive function of either relationship involves a real and vital contact between teacher and student. This contact serves to create both the motivation and the atmosphere for productive learning. The instrumental function is the process of imparting skills. To achieve maximum effectiveness, foreign language instruction should use both of the functions and relationships just described.

If we match the various aspects of foreign language instruction against these relationships, we find a fairly clear differentiation between the instrumental (machine) and expressive (teacher) functions. We also discover that the success of instrumental functions depends upon control.[6] We can write superb materials, teach them brilliantly, and motivate students beyond all expectations. But if insufficient, inaccurate, or uncontrolled practice is allowed, the resultant learning is far from the desired objective.

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[6] Carroll offers a valuable definition of "control":

> The word *control* as used by behavioral scientists has probably been misunderstood in some quarters. Behavioral scientists do not seek to "control" behavior in the sense of "pulling the strings" like a puppeteer. They do not pretend to be "Big Brothers" arbitrarily dictating the behavior of students. The notion of "control" is better thought of as akin to the notion of "guiding" or "arousing" behavior. If appropriately designed, a learning situation can guide or arouse the formation of new response tendencies – tendencies which the student usually wishes to acquire in any case. Matters can be arranged in such a way that these new responses will *come under the control of certain stimuli.* The control, then, is to be exercised by stimuli (spoken words, printed problems, etc.) rather than by the teacher or anyone else who sets himself up as an arbitrary dictator.

John Carroll, "A Primer of Programmed Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching," *IRAL,* I (1963), 137.

PL-CAI and Instructional Objectives

When learning is directed by a teacher alone, use of instructional objectives is important to the effectiveness of instruction. When learning is assisted by a computerized program, specification of the behavior expected of students is indispensable. Without such specification, the program itself simply cannot be built.

The specification of expected behavior for programmed instruction in foreign languages entails the following:

1. A detailed linguistic description of the target language to be learned
2. A detailed contrastive linguistic analysis of the target language and the student's native language
3. A detailed analysis of each linguistic feature of the target language with respect to the skills involved

Some fundamental descriptive and structural studies of these three elements already exist and provide complete analyses of native and target languages as well as specification of points of contrast and the nature of interlingual interference. Moreover, these same studies provide an understanding of the internal hierarchy within each language at each of the levels of its structure: phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexical items.

Superimposed upon each of these structural components are categories of skills involved in learning them and in learning to use them in normal communication:

1. Listening
   a. Auditory acuity
   b. Listening comprehension
2. Speaking
   a. Production of utterances
   b. Speaking with meaning
3. Reading
   a. Perception
   b. Comprehension
4. Writing
   a. Production
   b. Writing with meaning

Although the forming of habits in using a foreign language is emphasized in the beginning stages of language learning, not all native or second language learning is entirely a matter of habit formation. The ultimate aim is to develop the kind of fluency that can come only after the habit-forming stage has been transcended when abilities to analyze and create are called into play.

To be effective in foreign language teaching, a program must provide for the following:

1. *Audiovisual presentation.* Since the behavioral expectations for any foreign language program include competence in both speaking and writing, the program must provide means for presenting both auditory and graphic language as well as pictorial stimuli. The complete system must contain provisions for integrating both the auditory and visual components.
2. *Immediate confirmation of responses.* The program must be so arranged that every response of the learner is immediately confirmed as correct or incorrect.
3. *Provision for student response.* The program must provide an opportunity for the student to construct his own responses to given stimuli while at the same time providing for the controlled responses that lead up to this spontaneous activity.
4. *Provision for repetition.* The program must provide the student with the opportunity to repeat any given step, or frame, as often as necessary until the specified level of performance has been achieved. Similarly, the program should be able to interpret *why* a student may be having difficulty with a given frame and what influence this difficulty is likely to have on succeeding frames. Once this interpretation is made, the program should have the capacity to adjust the presentation to account for the difficulty. Thus, in some cases, a return to certain earlier frames is indicated as a review; in others, a special sequence of frames must be completed before the student can proceed to the next frame of the regular sequence.
5. *Provision for independence.* The program must provide for the gradual withdrawal of specific models and major cues. [illegible] permits the student to begin the transition from the essentially manipulative aspect of the language learning process to the communication stage of natural language behavior.
6. *Provision for self-pacing.* The learner should be able to control the speed of the program, including the speed of repetition and review.

"Hardware" and "Software"

Programmed learning/computer-assisted instruction (PL-CAI) is customarily divided into two components. The first, called "hardware," refers to electromechanical equipment such as projectors, recorders, and computers. The second, called "software," is the instructional content of the program. The instructional content is vastly more important than the equipment, but the equipment helps present the content in the most efficient and effective way.

Together, the software and the hardware should do the following:

1. Effect efficient communication between student and program.
2. Make the content of the program responsive to what the student does.

It must be emphasized from the outset that the term "machine" refers to whatever device is used to present the program. It may be electrical or mechanical; it may also be a textbook. Whatever device is used, it must always fulfill the general requirements of programmed learning and the specific requirements of the program at hand.

Automated Teaching in a Foreign Language Course of Study

In the final analysis each school district must decide what place automated instruction will assume in its foreign language program. At present, the following four uses seem possible:

1. PL-CAI as the sole vehicle of instruction
2. PL-CAI as the main vehicle of instruction
3. PL-CAI as a major complementary component of instruction
4. PL-CAI as a minor adjunct to instruction

The use of PL-CAI as the main vehicle of instruction may be effective when there is a need for courses in individual foreign languages for which student demand, though present, is insufficient to justify a full class in the subject, or when adequate teaching staff is unavailable.

When PL-CAI is the main vehicle of instruction, it is usually in a foreign language program that is set up with a clear division of expressive and instrumental modalities, and it makes use of both the teacher and the programmed materials in their respective domains.

When PL-CAI is a major complementary component of instruction, it is assumed that no change will take place in the traditional classroom setting, but that automated means will be employed from time to time in the classroom and perhaps also as the primary means of preparing home assignments. Districts that use PL-CAI in this way fail to recognize that it is an instructional method of its own and cannot be added indiscriminately to a teaching program. Like the language laboratory, PL-CAI can become merely a novelty for the learner when it is used to supplement a program that has not been designed to accommodate it.

The fourth use of PL-CAI – as a minor adjunct to instruction – is the least practical in view of the potential of the medium and its complexity. In this context, the investment of effort would bring little benefit. Districts that envision PL-CAI in this capacity probably have no serious intention of restructuring their curriculums.

Thus, the real choice seems to be between the first two uses of PL-CAI just described. Of these two, it would seem that for instruction in foreign languages, PL-CAI as the main vehicle of instruction is the more promising.

Since PL-CAI is relatively new in foreign language instruction, a wide range of program packages is not yet available for purchase. However, since one of the major advantages of PL-CAI is its adaptability to each learning situation, many schools and districts will wish to consider creating their own programs and creating the hardware to match.

In many cases, realistic cost estimates can be made only after the program has been written and the necessary hardware has been specified. The following are general cost estimates for PL-CAI programs:

1. Packaged programs including software only may cost from $10 to $300 per unit. Such programs are usually in the format of programmed textbooks, requiring in some cases only two-track tape equipment, such as may be found in the audio-active-evaluative language laboratory. When no laboratory facilities of this type are available, the cost per unit for such equipment may be estimated at $250.
2. Programs created locally involve several separate cost bases, including time spent in programming and field testing, hardware design, hardware acquisition or construction, and the like. No absolute figures are available, but some projects have been completed at a cost per frame of $15, including hardware.

In developing a program, it is essential to begin with a careful definition of the objective and proceed to develop the software elements first. Specific hardware should be considered only in relation to its use in presenting the program effectively.

In general, the cost of programmed instructional materials appears to be higher per unit than the cost of conventional textbooks. The hardware may be somewhat more complex than that of language laboratories currently in operation and consequently more expensive. But if we are right in attributing to PL-CAI the meaningful advantages over conventional instruction that have been discussed in this section, then the initial dollar investment may prove a bargain in the long run.

chapter 15

Student Contracts

In the beginning levels of foreign language instruction, the learner has little opportunity to determine the content or the form of his study. Once he chooses a specific sequence, he proceeds along the same track toward accomplishment of the same goals as other students in that course.

Although the designers of courses of study may choose vocabulary and determine the sequence by which structural components are presented, the learner has no options other than to vary the rate at which he will proceed. Not until the learner has achieved a relatively high level of proficiency is he able to select topics and procedures for study. This is possible when he has less need to focus on language as an end in itself – when he may use language more as a means for accomplishing other ends.

Teachers who wish to provide advanced students with the opportunity to use foreign language skills in pursuit of individual interests may employ student contracts in their classes to individualize instruction. Even if these are used, the course may contain a core or commonality of learning for which all students are responsible.

When a student takes on a contract, he enters into an agreement to achieve certain objectives of his own choice. Responsibility for fulfilling the contract's terms rests with the student, who may participate in a wide range of activities and use a wide variety of materials to meet his objectives. The teacher acts as a resource person, guiding students in their individual pursuits.

Contracts may be of two types: prepared and evolving.

Prepared Contracts

A prepared contract is one that has been developed before the student chooses it. The content may have been created by the teacher or by a previous student in the same course. Such a contract has the following characteristics:

1. *Title and classification of content* provide a means of easily identifying the content of the contract and may describe

content in terms of subject and/or grammatical emphasis; e.g., "Idiomatic Expressions in German Related to Travel in Germany."

2. *Proficiency emphasis* serves to increase proficiency in one of the four skills, even when literary or other goals are being pursued at the same time; e.g., "Speaking."
3. *The statement of objective* describes the behavior to be expected of the student as proof that he has completed the contract. It should include the conditions under which performance is to take place and the standards by which performance will be evaluated; e.g., "The student will present a ten-minute slide lecture to the class. The lecture should be based on no less than 15 slides depicting situations encountered while traveling in Germany, using no less than two idioms in describing each picture."
4. *A list of suggested activities for accomplishing the objective* is helpful and leaves the student free to choose the means by which he will complete the contract. The following is an example of such a list:
    a. Read *Wie man in Deutschland billig fährt.*
    b. Visit the public library to review slide collection.
    c. Interview local Lufthansa representative.
    d. Write to Germany for train and bus timetables.
    e. Visit local automobile club to secure explanation of European road signs.
5. *Resources* may include not only physical resources, such as books, places, and agencies, but also persons with whom contact can be valuable.
6. *Time allotment* indicates the maximum time allowed to complete the contract; e.g., "Ten days."

Evolving Contracts

The teacher should make available a variety of contracts from which students may choose. However, preparation of well-designed contracts is difficult and time-consuming. One solution is for groups of teachers to pool their experiences in a materials development workshop that can produce a number of contracts in a short time.

Another solution is to give students the opportunity to create their own contracts. They can use either guidelines prepared by the teacher or a well-designed contract as a model. Only students who have successfully completed one or more prepared contracts should be permitted to do this.

In preparing his own contract, the student would submit a rough draft or a preliminary version to the teacher for review before a tentative contract is agreed upon. The student would then be expected to execute the tentative version, incorporating suggestions for modification as he proceeds. Once modified, the tentative version becomes a prepared contract that is ready for use by future students in the course.

Allowing students to evolve their own contracts has several advantages:

1. Students are more likely to select topics of interest to students.
2. Students are more likely to be enthusiastic in executing contracts they have themselves evolved than in executing prepared contracts.
3. Teachers can use in other ways the time they save by not having to prepare contracts.

SECTION V

PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

Growth is one of the fundamental principles of life. When a plant ceases to grow, it dies. The same is true of people; when they stop growing, they die too. Growth is often painful, but there can be no sustained progress without it. Although foreign languages are basic subjects of the curriculum, they are not required subjects in all schools. Therefore, it falls upon those who teach foreign languages to make these subjects just as exciting and rewarding as possible if foreign language enrollments are to continue at a high level. One of the best ways to continue one's enthusiasm and excitement in teaching is to continue to grow in one's understanding of languages and of civilization and of more effective ways to interest students in studying them.

chapter 16

The Process of Improving Instruction

California law sets minimum standards that must be met before a person may teach in this state. These standards are expressed in terms of the training and experience that are prerequisite to the granting of a teaching certificate. Beyond these requirements, however, there are certain basic qualifications that every teacher of foreign languages should demonstrate before he is employed:

1. He should be able to communicate in the language he will teach. This ability should be demonstrated by performance in each of the four foreign language skills – understanding, speaking, reading, and writing.[1]
2. He should be able to demonstrate that he understands the culture of the people whose language he teaches.
3. He should be able to implement teaching strategies that include:
   a. A statement of specific instructional objectives
   b. Learning activities that are appropriate for attaining those objectives
   c. Evaluation of student achievement of specified objectives
4. He should be able to use any of the major textbook materials according to directions given in the teacher's manual that accompanies those materials.

It is generally assumed that when a foreign language teacher completes his professional training, he is prepared to teach; that is, he possesses a minimum set of teaching skills. To an extent, this assumption is correct. Yet, every teacher should want to function with more than a minimum set of skills, just as he should want his students to achieve more than minimal results in learning a foreign language.

Teachers may increase their teaching effectiveness in two ways: (1) naturally and unconsciously in the day-to-day act of teaching; and (2) consciously and purposefully in an effort to seek out, within and beyond the limits of the classroom, ways to improve instruction.

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[1] Standardized or locally prepared tests may be used to determine these proficiencies. Oral proficiency can readily be evaluated by having foreign language teacher candidates participate in informal oral interviews conducted by experienced foreign language teachers in the school district concerned.

If a teacher relies only on the improvement that comes about naturally as a consequence of his daily experience in class, he can quickly acquire a fixed and limited pattern of teaching. Although he may refine the techniques that he brings from his preteaching training, he is not likely to develop many new ones. It is true that the gifted teacher may create or discover innovative approaches, but most teachers who do not search beyond themselves for professional improvement are not likely to improve.

Improvement Within the Classroom

Educators in general, and those who specialize in foreign language education in particular, have long asserted that instruction should be designed to meet the needs of individual students. Slogans such as "individualizing instruction" and "meeting individual needs" are used to justify a wide variety of techniques, methods, and materials of instruction. Yet, many teachers who speak about meeting the needs of individual students never ask the students what they feel their needs are. The truth is – despite the slogans – that most teachers conduct their courses like the tailor who tries to sell suits of only one size, cut, and fabric. The "outstanding" customer is the one who fits the suit.

If there is any doubt that students believe foreign language courses do not meet their needs, one need only consult the foreign language enrollment data for the state. The tremendous attrition in high school foreign language courses after the second year stands as an indictment, perhaps not so much of the profession's inability to hold students beyond the two years necessary to meet college entrance requirements, as of school districts' failure to plan and implement well-articulated foreign language programs.

Involving Students

Students should be involved in the implementation of foreign language programs. This involvement should include the determination of which foreign language courses are to be offered at a given school as well as the determination of course objectives. Students should then be consulted continuously during the school year to determine if, from their point of view, learning activities are indeed facilitating achievement of the agreed-upon goals.

Because it is so easy for the teacher to neglect meaningful involvement of students in the conducting of foreign language courses, he may want to establish a class advisory council for each course. Such a group, consisting of students elected by the class, should be provided specific time to meet regularly as a group, to meet regularly with the teacher, and to meet when necessary with the entire class.

In addition, students at appropriate levels should be invited to participate in textbook selection and in the planning of curricular and extracurricular activities that affect the instructional program.

Involving Parents and the Community

An extension of student involvement within the classroom is the involvement of parents and other members of the community to help establish overall objectives for specific foreign language courses. As with students, formal councils should probably be established for these purposes. If such councils are not established, then at least special meetings should be scheduled and publicized so that interested parents and members of the community may participate if they wish.

Some educators have long had an aversion to the meaningful participation of students, parents, and members of the community in the planning of goals and objectives of education. Nevertheless, foreign language instruction will take a giant step forward in meeting the needs of individual students when it invites suggestions from these groups in designing the instructional program.

Improvement Outside the Classroom

There are many opportunities outside the classroom for the foreign language teacher to discover or create ways of improving instruction. In general, these consist of his joining foreign language colleagues to secure the benefits of organized action or of his using outside resources to enhance his instructional program.

Professional Associations

Today a multitude of professional associations represent foreign language teachers at local, regional, state, and national levels. Many of these associations cooperate closely with one another, and they are often linked by official affiliation. Each of these associations serves one or several of the varied interests of foreign language teachers.

The benefits to the individual teacher of membership in professional associations are many. Through the reading of articles in journals and newsletters, by attending conferences and conventions, and by participating in committee meetings and professional gatherings, the teacher acquires new ideas, techniques, and approaches for improving instruction in his classroom. Where the opportunities for inservice education are limited, and even where they are plentiful, the professional associations play a vital role in helping to upgrade the competence of individual foreign language teachers. The small amount of time and money that the teacher invests to support the activities of the associations is amply returned in many ways.

Beyond this, however, is an even stronger motivation for teachers to join their professional organizations. Teachers must be involved in the establishment of policies and procedures that affect foreign language education. Only if teachers can maintain a strong political voice will they be able to effect the educational changes they seek.

What one teacher cannot do alone, he can often accomplish when he joins forces with his colleagues. Professional affiliation in a state, regional, or national foreign language association is an excellent opportunity for sharing ideas and promoting the improvement of foreign language instruction.

National associations. Recognizing the need to unite teachers of all foreign languages at all levels in one national professional organization, the Modern Language Association, which has long served the academic interests of foreign language teachers as well as those of English teachers, created the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Emphasizing pedagogy rather than literary research, ACTFL publishes *Foreign Language Annals,* a quarterly journal; it promotes and encourages the study of foreign languages throughout the U.S.; and it maintains active committees that attempt to solve the multitude of problems facing foreign language education in America.

Foreign language teachers have long associated in professional groups according to the languages they teach. These associations are generally organized nationally, and some have local chapters. They include the following:

Association of Chinese Teachers (ACT)
American Classical League
American Association of Teachers of French (AATF)
American Association of Teachers of German (AATG)
American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI)
Association of Teachers of Japanese (ATJ)
American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL)
American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP)
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)

The membership of these associations includes language teachers from elementary and high schools, colleges, and universities. In general, the unifying force in each association is a common interest in the literature and language involved. In addition to publishing journals, these associations offer a variety of professional services. They usually conduct one national conference per year, with chapters sponsoring local programs, depending upon the interest of the local membership. Traditionally, the emphasis in these groups has been on literary scholarship, but this has been shifting in recent years to include pedagogy as well.

State associations. California's foreign language teachers are organized into several statewide professional groups. One of these, the California Foreign Language Teachers Association (CFLTA), not only represents individual teachers but also serves to coordinate the statewide activities of the state's regional associations. The major aim of CFLTA is to strengthen the role of foreign languages in the curricula of California's schools. High priority is given to the organization's legislative and public relations activities, which are designed to create greater statewide acceptance of the value of foreign language study. CFLTA publishes a newsletter and sponsors an annual statewide convention. Its governing body, consisting of representatives from each of the state's regional associations, maintains liaison with other statewide foreign language groups.

Also active on a statewide basis are the California Classical Association (CCA), the California Association of Teachers of English for Speakers of Other Languages (CATESOL), and the Chinese Language Teachers Association of California (CLTA).

Regional associations. Growth in California's school population has seen a concomitant growth in professional activity in the foreign language field. Not only has membership grown in regional and state associations but the number of associations has also increased.

Six associations affiliated with CFLTA currently serve the professional interests of foreign language teachers in various regions of the state:

Foreign Language Association of Greater Sacramento (FLAGS)
Foreign Language Association of Northern California (FLANC)
Foreign Language Council of San Diego (FLCSD)
Kern County Foreign Language Teachers Association (KCFLTA)
Modern and Classical Language Association of Southern California (MCLASC)
Tri-Counties Foreign Language Association (TRICOFLA)

These associations represent a multitude of different language interests, sometimes including local chapters of the national associations of foreign language teachers. They sponsor one or more regional conferences per year, publish newsletters, and maintain a variety of activities to meet local needs, including field days, language camps, and scholarship grants.

Utilization of Resources

Within many communities there are various resources that may be used by foreign language teachers to improve instruction. When these resources do not exist locally, they are often available in neighboring communities. In addition, the modern communications media – radio, telephone, and television – can play a helpful role.

Native speakers. Residents of the community who are native speakers of a foreign language are frequently willing to visit classrooms. Teachers should be sure that the visits are well structured and that the visitor understands clearly the educational objectives of his visit.

Clubs and associations of native speakers. Native speakers of languages other than English frequently associate in clubs and other groups where the native language is spoken. *L'Alliance Française,* the Cabrillo Club or the *Schwaben Verein* are examples of such groups. They sponsor many activities at which foreign language students would certainly be welcome. A contact with representatives of such groups can be a most fruitful one.

Motion picture theaters. Many large cities and some small ones have motion picture theaters where foreign films are shown. Obviously, such films are generally only for the most advanced students, but some are appropriate even for beginners. The teacher should preview any such films before he recommends them for viewing by students, not only to determine if the content is appropriate to the maturity of the students, but also to formulate specific educational objectives so that students can participate in follow-up activities based on the films.

The foreign language departments of many colleges and universities often sponsor foreign language films that may be useful at the high school level.

Teachers may also make use of foreign language telecasts or radio broadcasts when these are available in the community.

Local colleges and universities. Many fine cultural resources are available through special courses and programs at colleges and universities.

Study abroad. Increasing numbers of private and commercial organizations sponsor study programs abroad, usually during the summer. These can serve as a strong motivation for students to continue foreign language studies. Students who have been abroad return to the foreign language classroom with skills and information that can be shared with classmates. Their enthusiasm is often helpful in creating interest in the whole instructional program in foreign languages.

Yet, despite the many advantages of study abroad, teachers must use extreme care in recommending commercial programs to their students. First of all, many teachers question the ethics of exploiting their privileged position to recruit students for commercial ventures. Other serious problems are involved as well. Many companies advertise inducements for teachers to form and accompany groups in travel or study abroad. Some of the companies are less than responsible, caring more for their profit than for the educational value of their "programs." Before he recommends it, the teacher should be absolutely certain of the merit of a given company's educational program as well as the company's general reputation. Suggested criteria for the selection of study programs abroad are listed in Appendix C.

After students have participated in such programs, teachers should assume responsibility for determining whether the students' increased proficiency warrants their advancement in the school program.

The Teacher as Publicist

As the teacher makes increasing use of community resources to improve his classroom instruction, he comes in contact more frequently with members of the community. With this contact comes the opportunity to explain the purposes and nature of his program. Although the teacher may rely on his professional associations generally to publicize and promote the values of foreign language education, his personal contact with members of the community is invaluable.

Indeed, the teacher is the best salesman for his subject area, and he should never lose sight of his public relations role. This role begins naturally with his students. The teacher must convince students of the value of foreign language study, for most students enroll only because of college entrance requirements; their motivation is not intrinsic. Obviously, one of the best ways to develop students' interest in foreign language study is to provide them with a successful educational experience. In addition, the values of foreign language skills must be clearly explained to students.

When students are convinced of the worth of a subject, they serve as the best means for convincing their parents as well. Nevertheless, foreign language teachers should consciously create activities in which parents are made aware of their children's developing skills. Teachers must emphasize for parents the merit of fluency in a second language and the value of understanding another culture.

In this public relations role, the foreign language teacher should not forget to enlist the help of his fellow staff members. For example, every teacher knows that counselors play a critical role in developing a vigorous foreign language program. The teacher cannot take for granted that the counselors are committed to the values of foreign language study. Teachers must make continuous effort to educate counselors, administrators, members of the school district governing board, and colleagues who teach subjects other than foreign languages to the goals of foreign language instruction and to the necessity for maintaining these goals as part of the American educational system.

appendix A

Commercial Language Tests[1]

Commercial language tests may be classified under four headings: prognostic tests, progress tests (to accompany a specific set of instructional materials), achievement tests, and proficiency tests. While the following list in no way pretends to be complete, and must be frequently updated, it does include descriptions of the most widely used tests.

A. 1 PROGNOSTIC TESTS

A. 1. 1 *Carroll-Sapon Modern Language Aptitude Test* (MLAT) (The Psychological Corporation, 304 East 45th Street, New York, N. Y. 10017), 1959.

Age group: English-speaking persons, 9th graders to adults. (An elementary version of the MLAT is now in preparation.)

Forms: two

Administration: by school

Tape: yes (not needed for the Short Form)

Length: 60-70 minutes (Short Form without Parts I and II – 30 minutes.)

Description: The test has five parts:

Part I: Number Learning. Students learn numbers in a new language. This part measures auditory memory and auditory alertness (tape).

Part II: Phonetic Script. Students learn phonetic script and select the correct transcription for words spoken on tape. This part measures sound-symbol association ability (tape).

Part III: Spelling Clues. Students select the correct meaning of coded English words (a high-speed section). This part measures English vocabulary and, to some extent, sound-symbol association.

Part IV: Words in Sentences. Students handle diverse aspects of grammar in English, without using specific terminology. This part measures sensitivity to grammatical structure.

Part V: Paired Associates. Students memorize pairs of words. This part measures ability to learn rapidly by rote.

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[1] From *Modern Language Testing: A Handbook*, by Rebecca M. Vallette, © 1967 by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., pp. 183-192. Reprinted by permission of the publisher. All rights reserved.

A. 1. 2 *Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery* (Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 757 Third Ave., New York, N. Y. 10017), 1966.

Age group: English-speaking students in grades 6-12
Tape: yes
Length: 50-60 minutes
Administration: by school
Description: The test has six parts:

Part I: Grade-Point Average. Using a four-point scale, the students indicate the grades they last received in English, social studies, mathematics, and science.

Part II: Interest. Using a five-point scale, students evaluate their interest in studying foreign languages.

Part III: Vocabulary. Students select synonyms for twenty-four English words.

Part IV: Language Analysis. Presented with a limited number of words and phrases in an unfamiliar language, the students are asked to select the foreign-language equivalents of various English sentences. This part measures ability to draw appropriate analogies and to reason logically using foreign-language materials.

Part V: Sound Discrimination. Students learn to discriminate orally between similar sounds in a new language. This part measures the ability to learn new phonemic distinctions and to recognize them in different contexts.

Part VI: Sound-Symbol Association. From groups of four similarly spelled nonsense words, students select the ones that agree with the sounds heard on tape. This part measures ability to associate English-language sounds with their written symbols.

A. 2 PROGRESS TESTS

Progress tests are designed to accompany a specific set of instructional materials. Most of the major publishers are now producing tests to accompany their language textbooks. The teacher is advised to request a copy of the commercial test and study it in the light of his own course objectives. Only then can he decide whether or not to order such tests for his classes.

A. 3 ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

A. 3. 1 Common Concepts Foreign Language Test (California Test Bureau, Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, California 93940), 1962.

Languages: French, German, Spanish (and English)
Levels: One (all grades)
Forms: two

Administration: by school
Skills tested: listening
Tape: yes
Length: 40 minutes
Description: The student hears sentences in the foreign language. He indicates his understanding of what he has heard by selecting from sets of four colored pictures the ones that have been correctly described.

A. 3. 2 *MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests* (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J. 08540), 1963.

Languages: French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish
Levels: L (One-Two) and M (Three-Four)
Forms: two
Administration: by school
Skills tested: listening, speaking, reading, writing
Tape: yes
Length: listening – 25 minutes; speaking – 10 minutes; reading – 35 minutes; writing – 35 minutes
Description:

Listening. The first few items of the Level L test use pictures. Thereafter the student selects from the printed selections in his answer booklet the correct rejoinders or correct answers to taped questions. The following types of items are used: discrete statements or questions, questions about a recorded conversation, appropriate rejoinders for a telephone conversation, and, in Level M, questions about a longer recorded passage. The tests do not measure listening comprehension independently of reading.

Speaking. Item types involve repetition of recorded sentences, reading aloud, answering questions about pictures, and free oral description of a picture.

Reading. The types of items include fill-in-the-blanks, substitution of words or phrases, and questions on short reading passages. The entire test is multiple-choice.

Writing. The items differ somewhat from language to language. In general the following types are used: fill-in-the-blanks, transformation of sentences (to the past, to the plural, etc.), dehydrated sentences, and directed composition.

A. 3. 3 *Pimsleur Modern Foreign-Language Proficiency Tests* (Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 757 Third Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10017), 1967.

Lauguages: French, German, Spanish
Levels: One and Two
Forms: one

Administration: by school
Skills tested: listening, speaking, reading, writing
Tape: yes
Length: listening – 20 minutes; speaking – 20 minutes; reading – 35 minutes; writing – 35 minutes
Description:

Listening. Part I contains 20 phonemic-accuracy items in the form of complete sentences. In Part II the student selects the most appropriate response to a spoken stimulus from among four printed responses. This test may be used only for classes with reading skill.

Speaking. In Part I the student identifies objects pictured in the test booklet. In Part II the student hears a number of sentences on tape and then reads them aloud. In Part III the student responds orally to questions presented on tape.

Reading. All the reading-comprehension items are based on short passages. The entire test is multiple-choice.

Writing. The types of items vary somewhat from language to language. At both test levels, however, there is a progression from fill-in-the-blank items to controlled sentences (transformation and substitution) to free composition based on pictures.

A. 3. 7 *Cooperative French Listening Comprehension Test* (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J. 08540), 1955.
Language: French
Levels: Two through Five (one test)
Forms: two
Administration: by school
Skills tested: listening (but reading skill is necessary)
Tape: yes
Length: 30 minutes
Description: The test has four sections:

Phonemic Description (or phonemic accuracy). The student hears a sentence and selects the corresponding sentence from five printed options.

Answering Questions. The student hears a question and selects the appropriate response from five printed options.

Completion of Statements. The student hears a partial statement and selects the appropriate completion from five printed options.

Comprehension of Passages. The student hears a passage, then related questions, and he selects the appropriate response from five options.

A. 3. 8 *College Board Achievement Tests* (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J., 08540), revised annually.
Languages: French, German, Hebrew, Russian, Spanish

Levels: Two through Five (one test)
Forms: varied
Administration: in specified centers on dates announced in advance
Skills tested: reading
Tape: no
Length: 60 minutes

Description: Since the College Board Achievement Tests are written by rotating committees of professors, the format and item types may vary somewhat from year to year. All items are multiple-choice reading items. Typically such tests include the following item types:

Situation Questions. This printed test measures familiarity with the spoken language. The student selects the appropriate statement from four or five options.

Usage Questions. This part includes substitution and fill-in-the-blank items, occasionally with English cues, and completion sentences.

Vocabulary Questions. This part includes discrete items that usually test vocabulary in context in the target language.

Reading-Comprehension Items. Passages are given, followed by questions on content and items on particular words and phrases, sometimes requesting the most appropriate English equivalents.

A. 3. 9 *College Board Supplementary Achievement Tests* (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J., 08540), revised annually.

Languages: French, German, Italian, Latin, Russian, Spanish
Levels: Two through five (one test)
Forms: varied
Administration: annually, on a specified date
Skills tested: reading (Italian), writing (Italian), listening (French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish)
Tape: yes
Length: Italian Achievement Test (reading and writing) – 90 minutes
Listening-Comprehension Tests – 30 minutes

Description: Italian Achievement Test. This test is similar to the College Board Achievement Tests in other languages (see A. 3. 8) but includes a final section that measures student proficiency in writing.

Listening-Comprehension Tests. The types of items include short conversations followed by oral questions and printed responses; short questions with printed responses, long passages with oral questions and printed responses.

A. 3. 10 *Auxilium Latinum Press* (Dr. A. E. Warsley, Director, P.O. Box 345, Lyndhurst, N. J. 07071)

A. 4 PROFICIENCY TESTS

A. 4. 1 *College Board Advanced Placement Tests* (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J., 08540), prepared annually.

Languages: French, German, Latin, Spanish
Level: Five
Forms: one
Administration: annually, on a specified date
Skills tested: listening, reading, writing
Tape: yes
Length: three hours

Description: These tests are administered to high school seniors who have followed a specialized course of language study. The specific works of literature to be covered are announced at the beginning of each school year. Recent tests have included a section that measures listening comprehension (oral questions with printed responses) and sections that test note taking (a recorded lecture), reading comprehension (passage items), and textural compositions on literary topics.

A. 4. 2 *College Board Achievement Tests and Supplementary Achievement Tests* (see A. 3. 8 and A. 3. 9).

Schools may buy retired copies of these tests for local administration as placement tests.

appendix B

Guidelines for Evaluation of Foreign Language Instructional Materials

The following guidelines, entitled "Criteria for Evaluation of Foreign Language Instructional Materials," are adapted from those that appear in *A Practical Handbook for Implementation of Foreign Language Programs.*[1] The original guidelines have been modified in the light of recent and anticipated developments in foreign language instructional materials. They are intended for the teacher or administrator who is evaluating *component materials* for district (school) use or for the individual classroom teacher who is seeking new materials.

Let it be emphasized at the outset that school administrators and teachers share the obligation to work together to select component (reusable) materials which meet a district's (or a school's) objectives for its specific foreign language program. Teachers also have an obligation to keep abreast of developments in foreign language instruction and teaching materials.

It should be noted further that the blessings of American technology include many new teaching devices that often accelerate learning more efficiently than does the traditional textbook. Probably no discipline has profited more than foreign languages from these devices, and no discipline has been more involved in their development. Indeed, films, phonograph records, slides, tapes, and television can no longer be considered nonessential supplements to a textbook. Many instructional materials today use sound and visual materials as the basic unit to which the textbook is ancillary. The best instructional materials are interlocking components, none of which can be used effectively without the others. Thus, a meaningful evaluation of a foreign language instructional program must include an evaluation of all the materials designed for that program. The criteria that follow provide a practical guide for the evaluation of various textual, sound, and visual components of foreign language instructional programs.

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[1] Prepared by the Foreign Language Special Interest Committee of the California Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Mary DuFort, Chairman). Hayward, Calif.: Office of the Alameda County Superintendent of Schools, August, 1967.

A simple rating scale accompanies the criteria: "Good," "Fair," "Poor," and "Not represented in the component." Space is also provided for notes and comments by the evaluator. Such a scale is intended as an expeditious method for surveying and rating the various characteristics of component materials. Any rigid measure would be inappropriate. The general qualities of a given set of materials, for example, might all be rated "Good." But if the question "Is their content appropriate to the age level of the students for which they are intended?" must be answered "Poor," the components in question might well have to be rejected, despite their generally excellent rating. Or again, a district (school) that already enjoys excellent visual materials may be able to allow itself more latitude in rating the visual components of given instructional materials. Rather than establish an arbitrary score, the evaluator must seek to determine (1) the general quality of the materials; and (2) the suitability of the materials to his district's (school's) foreign language program. It may be useful for him to begin by ordering components according to their importance to the program.

Since no list of criteria for evaluating foreign language instructional materials can be definitive, it is expected that the evaluator will exercise professional initiative by adding to the list his own criteria when required by the particular demands of his district's (school's) foreign language program or by the component he is evaluating.

Preliminary Data Necessary to Evaluate Foreign Language Materials

A. THE EVALUATOR

Name__________________ Title__________________________
District (school)_____________________________________
Professional address__________________________________
Qualifications as an evaluator_________________________
____

B. DISTRICT'S (SCHOOL'S) FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM

District (school)_____________________________________
Superintendent (principal)_____________________________
Language_________ Instructional program's objectives__________
____
____

Grade(s)_________ Level(s) of difficulty (beginning, intermediate, advanced; conversational)______________________________
Length and frequency of class meetings___________________
Student/teacher ratio___________ Budget_________________
Number of units of component materials required____________

C. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Author___________________ Title_______________________
Publisher________________ Edition_________ Date___________
Cost: Films______________________
Overhead transparencies__________
Phonograph records______________
Slides__________________________
Tapes_________________
Television______________
Textbooks______________
Other_________________

Evaluation of Materials

	Good	Fair	Poor	Not rep.[2]
A. General qualities of materials for classroom instruction				
1. Are the materials relevant to the district's objectives for foreign language instruction?				
2. Is their content appropriate to the age level of the students for whom they are intended?				
3. Is their content appropriate to the grade of instruction for which they are intended?				
4. Are they (a) durable; (b) easily used; and (c) *attractively presented*?				
5. Are language and cultural situations authentic?				
6. Is the subject matter presented through a variety of techniques?				
7. Are new structures and new vocabulary singled out for special emphasis through a variety of teaching techniques (e.g., dialogues, questions and answers, narratives, songs, and drills)?				
8. Are sentence patterns and drills varied enough? Are enough drills provided?				
9. After their initial introduction, are grammatical topics reintroduced periodically?				
10. Do the materials enable the student to become familiar with common phonological, syntactical, and morphological patterns?				
11. Does the sequence of the materials provide for smooth transition from unit to unit and from level of difficulty to level of difficulty?				
12. Do the various components complement each other; e.g., do the visual components reinforce the textual ones?				
B. Qualities of the teacher's manual				
1. Does the manual state explicitly the philosophical orientation of the textbook?				
2. Does the manual include readily understood, sufficient, and specific directions for teachers (e.g., how to use materials,				

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[2] Not represented in the component materials.

	Good	Fair	Poor	Not rep.
suggested techniques, supplementary materials, and cultural items of interest)?				
3. Does the manual anticipate the special difficulties of each lesson and propose remedies for them?				
4. Are phonological, syntactical, or morphological patterns listed in such a way that the teacher will understand them?				
5. Is the manual designed for easy handling and reference?				
C. Qualities of component (reusable) materials: sound				
The following criteria apply to materials employing recorded sound, such as phonograph records, tapes, motion pictures, filmstrips, and the like. The criteria should be applied separately to each component.				
1. Are recordings an integral part of the component materials? Are recordings provided for textual and visual materials of other components?				
2. Are the recordings of high fidelity?				
3. Are the recorded voices (a) of a pleasant quality; and (b) those of native speakers?				
4. Is a variety of voices provided (e.g., male, female; adult, child; varying pitch and timbre)?				
5. Do the voices speak at an appropriate rate and with accurate intonation?				
6. Is the recorded material organized appropriately for the instruction intended; i.e., Does it provide appropriate time for student reply, repetition? Does it provide appropriate examples and opportunity for frequent repetition)?				
7. Do recordings accompanying textbooks provide sufficient supplemental listening practice?				
D. Qualities of component (reusable) materials: visual				
The following criteria apply to book illustrations, charts, films (motion pictures, slides, and strips), maps, posters, wall decorations, and the like. The cri-				

	Good	Fair	Poor	Not rep.
teria should be applied separately to each component.				
1. Are the materials large enough to be viewed easily?				
2. Is the subject matter interesting to the students?				
3. Do the materials clearly illustrate the language principle in question?				
4. Are they easy to use?				
5. Are they accompanied by helpful teaching techniques?				
6. Are the historical and cultural details presented in the materials accurate?				
E. Qualities of component (reusable) materials: games, models, toys, and the like.				
Many new materials are being developed and appear on the market with increasing frequency. Teachers have a professional obligation to inform themselves about these materials and to weigh their pedagogical value. The criteria should be applied separately to each component. (It may be necessary to describe each component briefly.)				
1. Are the materials (a) durable; (b) easy to use; and (c) safe to use?				
2. Do they help in attaining the objectives of the foreign language program in question?				
3. Are they attractive to the students?				
4. Are they suitable for both large and small classes?				
F. Tests				
1. Are testing materials an integral part of the components?				
2. Do the materials include tests that measure the students' achievement periodically?				
3. Are the organization and administration of the tests appropriate to the skills tested; e.g., are oral skills tested by having the student speak?				

G. Summary

1. What are the particular strengths and weaknesses of the materials?_______
2. Do the materials enhance the articulation of the district's (school's) foreign language program?_______
3. What audiovisual equipment does use of the materials require?_______
4. Can the district (school) afford the materials?_______
5. Other comments:_______

*Signed*_______
*Date*_______

appendix C

Guidelines for Evaluating Foreign Language Programs Abroad for High School Students: A Reappraisal

Prepared by

The National Council of State Supervisors
of Foreign Languages

November, 1971

Criteria for the evaluation of study/travel abroad programs for high school students of foreign languages were approved in 1966 by the National Council of State Supervisors of Foreign Languages. Since then new developments have occurred which necessitate revision of the original criteria. New emphases in areas of the overseas programs require a re-examination of previous positions. The Council hopes that the reappraisal of criteria will be of assistance to school district administrators, teachers, parents, and high school students who are faced with decisions involving programs abroad.

It is not the intention of these guidelines to deter parents and students from participating in overseas foreign language programs but to help them be more selective in the choice of such a program. With the great number and variety of opportunities for high school students to travel and study abroad today, it becomes increasingly important for the potential traveler to select the best for his money.

The National Council therefore suggests the following *Guidelines for Evaluating Foreign Language Programs Abroad for High School Students:*

I. Selection of students

A. Screening

Does the sponsoring agency screen the student as to his maturity, character, and health? Who determines that a student can profit from such an overseas experience? Are letters of recommendation from a student's teachers, counselor, or dean required with the application? Is a medical examination required before the student is accepted?

B. Language ability

Has the student ever studied the foreign language? If the student has never studied the language before, will he be able to enter classes for beginners in the foreign country? Is it an economical use of a student's time for him to apply when he has never studied the particular foreign language?

C. Age grouping

Will high school students be mixed with college students and adults who are not staff members.

II. Recruitment of group leaders (chaperones, counselors)

A. Screening

Does the sponsoring agency screen those who are applying for the position of group leader, chaperone, or counselor or is any adult accepted who recruits a certain number of students? How is a group leader required to substantiate that he possesses good character and is in good health? How is it determined that the adult has the ability to lead, counsel, and chaperone high school students in a foreign environment?

B. Payment of group leader

Is the hiring of the group leader for the overseas assignment based upon his qualifications or is he selected because of his skill in recruiting a certain number of high school students?

C. Ethics

Are teachers adhering to ethics in student recruitment? The teacher's professional relationships with students should not be used for private advantage; the educator neither solicits nor involves students or their parents for commercial gain.*

D. Language ability and travel experience

Does the group leader, chaperone, or counselor serving in the overseas program possess a command of the foreign language? Has he ever been to the foreign country? For how long? How recently? Under what circumstances?

III. Operations of sponsoring agency

A. Travel and fees

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*See National Education Association "Code of Ethics of the Education Profession" adopted July 1968. Principle I 6. In fulfilling his obligations to the students, the educator shall not use professional relationships with students for private advantage.

Does the application blank clearly specify what is covered by the total payment and what is not? Are the items listed for which the student will be expected to pay extra?

B. Financial condition of the sponsoring agency

Is the sponsoring agency on a sound financial basis? Will students be stranded overseas as a result of poor financial management of the sponsor?

C. Payment procedures

Is the deadline for full payment required more than three months in advance? How late may cancellation be made without a penalty? Does the sponsoring agency require an application fee which is non-refundable? Is the amount of the fee excessive? Is the total cost of the travel/study program in line with the fees of other sponsoring agencies?

D. Insurance

Is the student required to carry accident, health, and luggage insurance? Are students who are covered under their parents' policies required to take additional insurance? Students should have insurance protection before leaving on an overseas program.

E. Advertising claims

Are the advertising brochures accurate in describing the accommodations for students? Answers can be obtained from students or group leaders who have previously participated in the program. Does the sponsoring agency guarantee that credit will be given to students who participate in the travel/study program? Credit is normally granted only by the registrar's office in the student's own high school.

IV. Academic program

A. Orientation of the student

Are the objectives of the travel/study program made clear before the student enrolls? Does the program include an orientation course for the student prior to departure for the foreign country?

B. Planning and staffing

Is the program a cooperative effort between a local educational agency (foreign language association, school district, school, etc.) and a sponsoring agency, or is the entire program handled by the sponsoring agency? When the sponsoring agency is responsible for obtaining overseas facilities only and the co-sponsoring local educational group is responsible for overseas curriculum and staffing, greater local control of the total educational program is possible.

How are staff members selected? What qualifies a person to teach American high school students in an overseas program? Native speakers do not necessarily make the best teachers, but students should have some exposure in classrooms to them. Foreign college professors are not necessarily the best choice since they often do not know how to teach American teenagers according to modern methods.

C. Authority for the overseas academic program

Does the sponsoring agency delegate its authority for the academic program to a foreign school, college, or university and hence surrender its control of the quality of the instruction?

D. Grouping and size of classes

Is placement into classes determined exclusively by a written test when objectives state that conversation is one of the main objectives of the academic program? What will the size of the classes be? Does the academic program provide for beginning, intermediate, and advanced classes? Are students other than Americans also enrolled in the language classes? Are college students enrolled in classes for high school students? Are all students regardless of their fluency in the language placed in the same group?

E. Course content

Are topics of instruction at the interest and maturity level of high school students?

Do the instructional materials used by the students relate to their language ability?

F. Extent of the course

Is sufficient time for classroom instruction provided in the foreign language program? Is daily instruction provided? Are field trips and special events related to classroom instruction or are they added as pure entertainment? Does the student use the foreign language outside as well as inside the classroom?

G. Evaluation

Are pre- and post-instruction tests used to measure what the student has learned? How is the quality and quantity of student learning determined? How is progress in the skills of listening-comprehension and speaking determined?

V. Housing and recreation time

A. Student housing

How far is the students' housing from the classroom? Where is the housing of the chaperones in relation to their student groups? How is it possible for a male group leader to chaperone the girls in his group who are housed in a girls' dormitory? The same question may be asked about female group leaders who are supposed to supervise boys who are housed in a boys' dormitory.

Are the students housed in dormitories or with families? How are the families chosen?

B. Medical staff

What medical services are provided at the overseas campus? Does the sponsoring agency charge students for any of the medical services? Are the medical services available at all times?

C. Free time and chaperonage

How "free" can an American high school student abroad be permitted to be? At what times during the travel/study program will the high school student be on his own (no chaperone)? Blocks of free time for students with little or no supervision present dangers. Does the sponsoring agency assume responsibility for the student during periods of free time?

D. Meals

What is the quality and quantity of the food served? Must the student supplement his inadequate meals with food which he must purchase? Are the meals served in a private dining room, a public cafeteria, or a restaurant?

Supervisors of foreign languages in state departments of education can provide additional suggestions for ways of evaluating programs abroad; they stand ready to help. It is the hope of the Council that the above questions and information will be of assistance to all those who contemplate enrolling in a travel/study foreign language program.

appendix D

Criteria for Selection of Materials for Foreign Language, Kindergarten and Grades One Through Eight

In selecting materials for foreign language instruction, major consideration must be given to (1) program goals; (2) scope; (3) time to begin foreign language instruction; and (4) language programs to be maintained.

Major Considerations

Program Goals

The ultimate goal of foreign language instruction is to help pupils to develop the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the foreign language to the same level of proficiency as they have developed these skills in their native language. Such language instruction should lead pupils to a full understanding of the culture of the people who are native speakers of the foreign language.

Scope

Instructional materials should provide opportunity for pupils to practice each of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In the beginning special emphasis may be given to listening and speaking. The determination of which skills require the greatest emphasis should be decided by the teacher.

None of the four skills, once having been introduced, should be abandoned. At different periods within the instructional program, each skill should receive emphasis according to the individual needs of the pupils. Thus, during the first day of foreign language instruction, a major effort in one class might be devoted to the development of the listening skill. In another class, it is possible that only a portion of the time would be devoted to practice in listening.

In still another class, one or more pupils may have demonstrated that they were ready to begin the reading skill in advance of the rest of the class. For these pupils instruction would be divided *appropriately* (not necessarily equally) between the listening, speaking,

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[1] These criteria were approved by the California State Curriculum Commission and adopted by the California State Board of Education and were published by the California State Department of Education, Sacramento, in February, 1970.

and reading skills, while the remainder of the class might still be using the full instructional period for listening and speaking exclusively or even conceivably for listening only.

The materials should be free of stereotype and should present the culture of the native speakers of the language authentically.

Time to Begin Foreign Language Instruction

Research and observation indicate that there is no neurological or psychological reason why the child should not learn one or more foreign languages from earliest infancy. Most recent, well-controlled experimentation, as well as observation of native bilingual and multilingual youths have shown that children who learn two or more languages simultaneously show no distressing effects. Indeed, they are clearly at an advantage, having developed the ability to communicate effortlessly and effectively in more than one language.

Therefore, the inclusion of foreign language in the curriculum should begin as early in the school life of the child as is administratively practical. Essential considerations within the area of "administrative practicality" would be, for example, the following:

1. Availability of teachers competent in the teaching of foreign language
2. Availability of appropriate instructional materials
3. Assurance of a continuous, sequential instructional program
4. Provision of adequate instructional time and space
5. Evidence of pupil interest

Provision of instructional materials in foreign language is uniquely complicated by the fact that the grade at which foreign language instruction is introduced varies considerably from district to district and even from school to school within a given district. It will be necessary, therefore, to provide instructional materials appropriate to the needs and interests of the pupils who are beginning the study of a particular foreign language at a variety of grade levels.

In order that this problem be minimized, instructional materials should be adopted for use within the three most generally recognized elementary school grade groupings: kindergarten-primary (kindergarten through grade three), which will be referred to as Parcel I; intermediate (grades four through six), which will be referred to as Parcel II; and upper (grades seven and eight), which will be referred to as Parcel III.

Schema for Foreign Language Textbook Adoption

Textbooks to be adopted for use with pupils beginning foreign language instruction	Textbooks to be adopted for use by pupils continuing foreign language instruction	Textbooks to be adopted for use by pupils continuing foreign language instruction
I_a leads to (kindergarten through grade three)	I_b leads to (grades four through six)	I_c (grades seven and eight)
II_a leads to (grades four through six)	II_b (grades seven and eight)	
III (grades seven through eight)		

Thus, according to the Schema for Foreign Language Textbook Adoption, the instructional materials for Parcel I will consist of at least three sequential materials parcels designated as I_a, I_b, and I_c, and pupils will proceed through the materials as follows:

Parcel I_a – For use with pupils beginning foreign language study in kindergarten through grade three

Parcel I_b – For use with pupils who have completed the I_a materials or whose ability in the foreign language is equal to that which would have been attained through the use of the I_a materials

Parcel I_c – For use with pupils who have completed the I_a and I_b materials or whose ability in the foreign language is equal to that which would have been attained through the use of I_a and I_b materials

The instructional materials for Parcel II will consist of at least two sequential materials groupings designated as II_a and II_b and pupils will proceed through the materials as follows:

Parcel II_a – For use with pupils beginning foreign language study in grades four through six

Parcel II_b – For use with pupils who have completed the II_a materials or whose ability in the foreign language is equal to that which would have been attained through the use of the II_a materials

The instructional materials for Parcel III will consist of one set of materials designated as III:

Parcel III – For use with pupils beginning foreign language study in grades seven and eight

In summary, the Roman numerals I, II, or III denote the grade levels at which pupils began foreign language instruction; e.g., K-3, 4-6, or 7-8. The subscripts a, b, and c indicate the proficiency levels in each of the series of materials.

These materials will be designated as basic and will not exclude the use of supplementary materials as deemed appropriate by the teacher.

Language Programs to Be Maintained

The materials will be provided as requested by a school district for the foreign language program or each of the foreign language programs the district will maintain.

Criteria for Evaluation of Pupil Textbooks, Teachers Editions, and Teachers Manuals

Pupil textbooks, teacher editions of the textbooks, and teachers manuals must meet the following criteria:

1. Provide the means for pupils to use the foreign language in natural communication by gradually decreasing the controls that have been initially imposed.
2. Present structures in the foreign language which are the most useful and natural in conveying the ideas and interests of children who are generally in the grade grouping under consideration.
3. Provide for systematic sequential development of basic foreign language structural patterns in small increments.
4. Provide for smooth transition from unit to unit and from level of difficulty to level of difficulty.
5. Provide reentry for reinforcement of previous learning.
6. Provide devices for determining how well the short-range objectives have been achieved.
7. Present all language in its natural form as appropriate to the situation in which it is used.
8. Present content through a variety of means appropriate to the content and to the student interest; e.g., songs, games, plays, stories, dialogs, poems.
9. Make available, for separate purchase by school districts, recorded tapes and discs appropriate to the content of the instructional materials.

10. Provide pictures which are culturally authentic and directly related to the printed material and which serve as visual cues.
11. Be (a) durable; (b) easily used; and (c) attractively presented.

Teachers editions of the textbooks and teachers manuals also meet the following criteria:

1. Provide an explicit statement of the philosophical orientation of the text – give basic assumptions that can be seen directly in the body of the content.
2. Contain measurable long- and short-range objectives emphasizing performance in the skills appropriate to the material grouping under consideration.
3. Provide devices for determining how well the long-range objectives of the program have been achieved. (See also item number 6 in the preceding list of criteria.)
4. Include readily understood, sufficient, and specific directions for teachers; i.e., how to use component materials; suggested techniques, supplementary materials, and cultural items of interest.
5. Provide information as to how the instruction can best be individualized.
6. List phonological, syntactical, and morphological patterns in such a way that the teacher can know immediately what they are.
7. Show the teacher where the difficulties in pronunciation and structure may be expected to occur, and provide the teacher with suggestions as to how to help the student overcome those difficulties.
8. Provide suggestions for enrichment of the basic program.
9. Provide the opportunity for full use of appropriate aids – real objects, visual aids, and recorded materials – in creating authentic situations for the presentation and introduction of concepts and for practice in the application of concepts learned.

Pupils textbooks must also meet the following criteria (to be used in addition to the aforementioned criteria for all student textbooks):

*Parcel**	*Criteria*
I_a and II_a	1. Be predominantly a visually cued textbook
	2. Have any written material in the foreign language reflect and reinforce the previously practiced spoken material.

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*See Schema for Foreign Language Textbook Adoption, page 115.

*Parcel**	*Criteria*
I_b and II_b	1. Contain a brief review of the major content previously studied. 2. Contain visual cues as well as related printed material.
I_c	1. Provide a brief review of the previously studied material. 2. Contain visual cues as well as related printed material. 3. Be predominantly in the foreign language.

Parcel	*Criteria*
III	1. Contain visual cues as well as related printed material. 2. Be predominantly in the foreign language.

Criteria for Evaluating Visual and Auditory Elements of the Foreign Language Materials Program

In many of the currently published foreign language instructional materials, a textbook is either nonexistent or is the least important element of the package. Components such as audiotapes, disc recordings, and posters form the essential ingredients and are vital to the successful use of the package.

It is required, per the first item 9 on page 116, that the foreign language materials adopted have available for purchase recorded tapes and discs which are essential to the effective use of the materials. The textbooks for parcels I_a, I_b, and II_b are specified as visually cued. Criteria for evaluating visual and auditory elements of the foreign language materials program are, therefore, included here as follows:

Visual elements of the foreign language materials program must meet the following criteria:

1. Be large enough to be clearly visible to the viewer.
2. Present subject matter of interest to the pupils.
3. Illustrate clearly the language and/or cultural principle in question.
4. Be accurate regarding historical and cultural details.
5. Be easy to use.
6. Be accompanied by helpful teaching techniques.

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*See Schema for Foreign Language Textbook Adoption, page 115.

Auditory aspects of the foreign language materials program must meet the following criteria.

1. Use authentic native or near-native speakers representing male and female adult as well as children's voices.
2. Be hi fidelity.
3. Employ recorded material designed for the specific program under scrutiny.
4. Use voices speaking at an appropriate rate and with accurate intonation.

appendix E

Legal Provisions for Foreign Language Instruction in California

Language of Instruction

English shall be the basic language of instruction in all schools. (Education Code Section 71).

Classes Conducted in a Foreign Language

Pupils who are proficient in English and who, by successful completion of advanced courses in a foreign language or by other means, have become fluent in that language may be instructed in classes conducted in that foreign language (Education Code Section 71).

Course of Study for Grades One Through Six

It is the intent and purpose of the Legislature to encourage the establishment of programs of instruction in foreign language, with instruction beginning as early as feasible for each school district. (Education Code Section 8552).

Course of Study for Grades Seven Through Twelve

The adopted course of study for grades seven through twelve shall offer courses in the following areas of study:

. . . .

(c) Foreign language or languages, beginning not later than grade 7, designed to develop a facility for understanding, speaking, reading, and writing that particular language (Education Code Section 8571).

appendix F

Examples of Instructional Objectives in Terms of Expected Student Behaviors[1]

Chinese

1. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Listening
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: The teacher utters a sentence in the form: "Jèshr̀ yī (Plus a measure word □)." (This is a □ .) The student points to the object referred to in the sentence.

   Example: *Teacher:* Jèshr̀ yìjǎng jwōdz.
   The student points to his desk.
   Teacher: Jèshr̀ yìjŕ bǐ.
   The student points to a pen.

2. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Structure (subject + object + verb) – replacement of object
   Objective: After the teacher presents a model sentence containing the verb "mǎi" and a noun (as object), he picks up or points to articles, such as a book, a pencil, a pen, a desk, and the like. The student then makes up his own sentences to describe each object indicated silently by the teacher.

   Example: The teacher points to a book and presents a model sentence: "Wǒ mǎi yìjr̄ chyānbǐ."
   The teacher picks up a pencil.
   Student: Wǒ mǎi yìjr̄ chyānbǐ.
   The teacher points to a flower.
   Student: Wǒ mǎi yìbǎ (yìdyǎr) huār.

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[1] The criteria for evaluation of each instructional objective are not included in the examples in this appendix. It is up to the teacher to formulate his own criteria based upon his experience and according to the needs of the student groups with which he is working.

3. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Greetings based upon the sentence patterns and vocabulary that have been emphasized in relation to various component skills
   Objective: When the teacher gives a cue naming the time of the day to two students who are to exchange greetings, the students spontaneously carry on a short dialogue including the greetings and sentence patterns they have learned.
   Example: *Teacher:* Morning (cue)
   Student A: Nǐ dzǎu.
   Student B: Nǐ dzǎu.
   Student A: Nǐ hǎu a.
   Student B: Wǒ hěn hǎu, syèsye nǐ. Nǐne?
   Student A: Wǒ yě hǎu. Nǐ mǎi shū ma?
   Student B: Shr̀de, wǒ mǎi shū.
   Student A: Nǐ mǎi chyānbǐ ma?
   Student B: Bù, wǒ bú mǎi chyānbǐ. Nǐ mǎi chyānbǐ ma?
   Student A: Shr̀de, wǒ mǎi dzàijyàn.
   Student B: Dzàijyàn.

4. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Reading in characters
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: After the student reads a paragraph written in characters, consisting of approximately ten sentences, he is given five short written sentences that describe the scene presented in the paragraph just read. From these, the student selects the three most appropriate sentences and puts them in sequence.
   Example: (The following paragraph should be written in characters.)

   Yǔ dzài syàje. Fèng yě dzài guāje. Mr. Taylor měiyou yǔsǎn, Miss Wang yěměiyou yǔsǎn. Mr. Taylor hàn Miss Wang juěding líudzài syàuli děng yu gwò hòu dzài dzǒu.

   The student is then given the following five sentences. The most appropriate of these sentences in relation to the original paragraph have been marked 1, 2, and 3.

1 Yǔ dzài syàje.
___ Mr. Taylor yǒu yìbǎ yǔsǎn.
2 Fèng yě dzài guāje.
___ Miss Wang měiyou yǔsǎn.
3 Mr. Taylor hàn Miss Wang juéding líudzài syàuli.

5. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Conjunction
Objective: After the teacher demonstrates two successive activities by gestures or pictures, the student describes the activities in a sentence using the connective (conjunction) "jyòu."

Example: The teacher walks to the door and opens it.
Student: Làushr yīdzǒudau měnkou, jyòu kāimén.

French

1. Course: Beginning
Skill: Listening
Focus: Comprehension
Objective: When the teacher names a part of the body, the student points to it.

Example: *Teacher:* Le pied
The student points to his foot.
Teacher: Les yeux
The student points to his eyes.

2. Course: Beginning
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Structure (replacing a noun subject with a pronoun subject)
Objective: The teacher presents a sentence containing a noun as subject. The student then repeats the sentence, substituting a pronoun for the noun subject.

Example: *Teacher:* Le chien est grand.
Student: Il est grand.
Teacher: La maîtresse est française.
Student: Elle est française.

3. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Vocabulary based on social amenities (greetings)
   Objective: The student is shown a picture first of an adult and then of a child. The student utters an appropriate greeting in each case.
   Example: The teacher shows a picture of a man.
   Student: Bonjour, monsieur. Comment allez-vous?
   The teacher shows a picture of a student in the class.
   Student: Bonjour, Henri. Comment vas-tu?

4. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Reading
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: The student is given a short paragraph to read which is followed by questions with multiple choice answers. The student selects the correct answers based on the information in the paragraph.
   Example: Il est sept heures. La famille est en train de dîner quand le téléphone sonne. Henri, le cadet de la famille, court vers le salon où se trouve le téléphone. Il savait bien que c'était pour lui.

   The following is a sample question; the correct answer has been marked with an "x."

   Ou èst la famille?

   __a. Elle est dans le salon.
   __b. Elle est à table.
   _x_c. Elle est en train de dîner.

5. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Writing
   Focus: Correct use of imperfect and present perfect tenses
   Objective: The teacher prepares a text in which all verbs are in the present tense. The student rewrites the passage changing each verb to the correct past tense.
   Example: *Original text:* C'est le matin. Il fait très beau. Georges décide d'aller à la pêche. Il prend son blouson en sortant de la maison, sa canne à pêche à la

main. Il va vers la rivière quand il entend un bruit. Il a peur et se met à courir.

Rewritten version: C'etait le matin. Il faisait très beau. Georges a décidé d'aller à la pêche. Il a pris son blouson en sortant de la maison, sa canne à pêche à la main. Il allait vers la rivière quand il a entendu un bruit. Il a eu peur et s'est mis à courir.

German

1. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Listening
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: When the teacher names a feature of the face, the student points to it.

   Example: *Teacher:* Nase
   The student points to his nose.
   Teacher: Auge
   The student points to his eye.

2. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Structure (replacing a noun object with a pronoun object.)
   Objective: The teacher presents a sentence containing a noun as a direct object. The student then repeats the sentence, substituting a pronoun for the noun.

   Example: *Teacher:* Karl trinkt Milch.
   Student: Karl trinkt sie.
   Teacher: Anna schlägt den Hund.
   Student: Anna schlägt ihn.

3. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: The teacher reads aloud a short paragraph describing a typical dinner scene in a German farm home. The student then asks questions, the answers to which are contained in the paragraph.

Example: *Teacher:* Der Bauer, der sehr müde ist, setzt sich an den Tisch, ohne ein Wort zu sagen. Seine Frau bringt ihm einen grossen grossen Teller, worauf. . .

Student: Wohin setzt sich der Bauer? Ist seine Frau dabei?

4. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Reading
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: The student is given printed sentences in pairs. The sentences in each pair may or may not be meaningfully related to each other. The student indicates which pairs consist of meaningfully related sentences.

   Example: The following are sample pairs of sentences. The pair in which the sentences are meaningfully related has been marked with an "x."

   [Die Wäsche ist noch nass.
   [Es ist offen.

   x [Es war schon dunkel.
   x [Er machte Licht.

Hebrew

1. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Listening
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: When the teacher names a part of the body, the student points to it.

   Example: *Teacher:* איפה הראש ?[2]
   The student points to his head.
   Teacher: איפה הרגל ?
   The student points to his foot.

2. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Structure (replacing a noun subject with a pronoun subject)
   Objective: Given a series of sentences, each containing a noun as subject, the student repeats the sentence, substituting a pronoun for the noun subject.

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[2] Appreciation is expressed to Avinoam Binder, Education Director, Jewish Federation, Sacramento, for the typesetting of the Hebrew words in this lesson.

Example: *Teacher:* הילד הולך לבית הספר.
Student: הוא הולך לבית הספר.
Teacher: המורה עומדת בחדר.
Student: היא עומדת בחדר.

3. Course: Beginning
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Sentence structure
Objective: Two students develop a dialogue based on an imaginary situation.

Example: The teacher sets up a grocery store situation including a shelf displaying food items.
Student A (purchaser) enters store and addresses
Student B (clerk): בבקשה תן לי ככר לחם.
Student B: הנה לחם.
Student A: תודה כמה זה עולה ?
Student B: חצי לירה,בבקשה.

4. Course: Beginning (fifth to seventh grade)
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Speaking a short monologue based on a mealtime situation
Objective: The student will use a puppet to join an assembly of other puppets seated at a dinner table. The student will speak the social amenities used at such a time.

Example: בתאבון חברים. אפשר לשבת? תודה ;
בבקשה להגיש לי את הבשר וגם פרוסת לחם.
יש כוס בשביל החלב? תודה.

Italian

1. Course: Beginning
Skill: Listening
Focus: Comprehension
Objective: When the teacher places several objects on a desk (e.g., books, pens, and notebooks) and instructs one student to go to the desk, pick up specific objects, and give them to other students in the classroom, the student carries out the teacher's instructions.

Example: *Teacher:* Và alla scrivania a prendere tre libri. Dà il libro rosso ad Enrico, il libro azzurro a Maria, e tieni il libro nero per te (stesso).
The student addressed follows the teacher's instructions.

2. Course: Beginning
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Correct use of adjectives (e.g., "large" and "small")
Objective: After the teacher points to a picture of a house and makes a gesture indicating "large" and then points to a picture of a car and makes a gesture indicating "small," the student uses the correct form of the adjectives in a sentence.

Example: *Student:* La casa e' grande, ma l'automobile e' piccola.

3. Course: Beginning
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Correct use of words to describe colors
Objective: The teacher holds up a picture of an article of clothing, or points to something he is wearing, and says, "I have a suit"; then he holds up various pieces of colored construction paper, one at a time. The student adds the word for whatever color is shown to the original statement.

Example: *Teacher:* Io ho un abito (vestito, anello).
The teacher holds up a piece of yellow construction paper.
Student: Io ho un abito giallo.
The teacher holds up a piece of blue construction paper.
Student: Io ho un abito azzurro.

4. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Control of structures in a dialogue
Objective: After working with text containing vocabulary and structures pertaining to various sports activities, the teacher will ask two students to develop a dialogue about a sport (e.g., soccer).

Example: *Teacher:* Giovanni ed Antonio, parlatemi di una partita de calcio.
Giovanni: Ciao, Antonio, come stai?
Antonio: Benissimo, grazie. Sei stato alla partita ieri?
Giovanni: No, purtroppo, ma mi hanno detto che e' stata fantastica. Com'è finita?

Antonio: L'Inter ha battuto il Milan per tre ad uno.
Giovanni: Come hanno giocato Corso e Rivera?
Antonio: Rivera non era in forma, ma Corso e' stato superlativo.
Giovanni: Ha segnato una rete da trenta metri, ed un'altra su punizione.
Antonio: L'Inter, dopo questa stupenda vittoria, vincera' certamente lo scudetto.
Giovanni: Ne sono contento. Viva l'Inter!

5. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Writing
Focus: Correct use of imperfect and past tenses
Objective: The teacher prepares a text that contains vocabulary and structures already studied. All verbs in this text are in the present tense. The teacher instructs the students to rewrite the passage using the correct past tense of each verb.
Example: Oggi (ieri) l'insegnante ci chiede (ha chiesto) de scrivere una lettera. Voglio (volevo) scrivere a mio zio per chiedergli di comprare una Lambretta per me. Purtroppo, non ho (avevo) una penna. L'insegnante me ne da (ha data) una e poi comincio (ho cominciato) a scrivere. Dico (ho detto) a mio zio che gli voglio (volevo) molto bene e gli chiedo (ho chiesto) de farmi un bel regalo – possibilmente una Lambretta.
Egli e' (e' stato) sempre molto generoso. Abitava a Milano. E' (era) uno sportivo e gli piacciono (piacevano) molto le automobili da corsa.

Japanese

1. Course: Beginning
Skill: Listening
Focus: Comprehension
Objective: The teacher utters a sentence in the form: "Kore wa ☐ desu." (This is a ☐.) The student points to the object that is named in the sentence.
Example: *Teacher:* Kore wa tsukue desu.
The student points to his desk.

Teacher: Kore wa pen desu.
The student points to a pen.

2. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Structure (subject + object + verb) – replacement of object
   Objective: After the teacher presents a model sentence containing the verb "kaimasu" and a noun (as object), he picks up or points to articles, such as a book, a pencil, a pen, a desk, a chair, and the like. The student then makes up his own sentences to describe each object indicated silently by the teacher.
   Example: The teacher points to a book and presents a model sentence: "(Watakushi wa) hon o kaimasu."
   The teacher picks up a pencil.
   Student: Empitsu o kaimasu.
   The teacher points out a flower.
   Student: Hana o kaimasu.

3. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Greetings based upon the sentence patterns and vocabulary that have been emphasized in relation to various component skills
   Objective: When the teacher gives a cue naming the time of day to two students who are to exchange greetings, the students will spontaneously carry on a short dialogue including the greetings and sentence patterns they have learned.
   Example: *Teacher:* Morning (cue)
   Student A: B-San, o-hayoo gozaimasu.
   Student B: A-San, o-hayoo gozaimasu.
   Student A: O-genki desu ka?
   Student B: Hai, o-kagesama de genki desu. Anata wa?
   Student A: Watakushi mo genki desu. Hon o kaimasu ka?
   Student B: Hai, hon o kaimasu.
   Student A: Empitsu o kaimasu ka?

Student B: Iie, empitsu o kaimasen. Hon o kaimasu. Anata wa nani o kaimasu ka?
Student A: Watakushi wa pen o kaimasu. Sayoonara.
Student B: Sayoonara.

4. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Reading in *hiragana*
Focus: Comprehension
Objective: After the student reads a paragraph, written in *hirangana* and consisting of approximately ten sentences, he is given five short written sentences that describe the scene depicted in the paragraph just read. From these, the student selects the three most appropriate sentences and puts them in sequence.
Example: (The following paragraph should be written in *hiragana.*)

Ame ga sukoshi futteimasu. Kaze mo sukoshi fuiteimasu. Teeraa-San wa kasa o motteimasen. Suzuki-San mo kasa o motteimasen. Teeraa-San to Suzuki-San wa gakko de matsu koto ni shimasu.

The student is then given the following five sentences. The most appropriate of these sentences in relation to the original paragraph have been marked 1, 2, and 3.

_1_ Ame ga sukoshi futteimasu.
Teerra-San to Suzuki-San wa soto e demashita.
Kaze ga takusan fuiteimasu.
_2_ Kaze ga sukoshi fuiteimasu.
_3_ Teeraa-San to Suzuki-San wa gakko de matteimasu.

5. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Conjunction *to sugu*
Objective: After the teacher demonstrates two successive activities by gestures or pictures, the student describes the activities in a sentence, using the connective (conjunction) "to sugu."
Example: The teacher walks to the door and opens it.
Student: Sensei wa doa no tokoro e iku to sugu doa o akemashita.

Latin

1. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Pronunciation of vowels
   Objective: After the teacher reads a list of Latin words, the student repeats them aloud using the correct vocalic sounds he has learned.

Example:

Teacher:	*Student:*
dat	daht
dás	dahhs
et	eht
tē	tay
in	ihn
īmus	ee-muhs
os	aws
ōs	ōhs
fuī	fuh-ee
fūr	fo͞or

2. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Listening
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: When the teacher names a feature of the human head, the student points to that feature on his own head.

Example: *Teacher:* Capillus
The student points to his hair.
Teacher: Oculus
The student points to one of his eyes.
Teacher: Dens
The student points to one of his teeth.
Teacher: Nāsus
The student points to his nose.
Teacher: Ōs
The student points to his mouth.

3. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Reading
   Focus: Comprehension

Objective: After reading the passage presented in the example, the student is able to identify the occupation of each of the five Romans mentioned.

Example: Mārcus, Quīntus, Publius, Secundus, Lūcius sunt quīnque Rōmānī. Alius est magister, alius est medicus, alius est poēta, alius est agricola, alius est nauta. Mārcus numquam in undīs nāvigat. Secundus aut discipulōs docet aut agrōs arat. Aut Publius aut Mārcus aegrōs sānat. Aut Mārcus aut Lūcius nauta est. Secundus in lūdō labōrat. Neque Quīntus neque Publius est medicus. Publius librōs non agrōs amat.

The student then identifies in writing the correct occupation of each of the Romans mentioned in the paragraph:

Mārcus est medicus.
Quīntus est agricola.
Publius est poēta.
Secundus est magister.
Lūcius est nauta.

4. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Reading – comprehension and speaking
Focus: Comprehension of text
Objective: When the teacher presents written questions in Latin about a Latin passage that has just been read aloud, the student answers with at least one complete sentence to indicate that he understood the passage and the question.

Example: Caesar suōs ā proeliō continēbat, āc satis habēbat in praesentiā a hostem repīnīs, pābulātiōnibus, populātiōnibusque prohibēre.

Teacher: Num Caesar suōs in proelium mittēbat?
Student: Immō vērō, eōs ā proeliō continēbat.
Teacher: None hostem rapinīs, pābulātiōnibus, populātiōnibusque prohibēbat?
Student: Nihil amplius faciēbat. Ipse dīcit sē satis habuisse in praesentiā a hostem repīnīs, pābulātiōnibus, populātiōnibusque prohibēre.

5. Course: Vergil
   Skill: Reading literature, learning the *sounds* of Latin
   Focus: Use of rhetorical devices of sound to enhance language and meaning
   Objective: After students have read aloud the second book of the *Aeneid,* the teacher asks for examples of alliteration and assonance.
   Example: *Teacher:* Give two examples of *sonitus* used in alliteration
   Student: *Sonitus spumante salo,* II, 1.209; *sonitum saxi* II, 1.308.
   Teacher: Give an example of assonance.
   Student: *Insontem infando indicio,* II, 1.84.

Portuguese

1. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Listening
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: When the teacher gives an oral command, the pupil is able to carry it out.
   Example: *Teacher:* Levante-se.
   The student stands up.
   Teacher: Vá ao quadro-preto.
   The student goes to the chalkboard.
   Teacher: Escreva o seu nome.
   The student writes his name.

2. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Structure (subject + verb + object) – replacement of object
   Objective: When given a model sentence, "Isto é a mesa," the student repeats the model sentence, substituting the object indicated by the teacher.
   Example: The teacher points to a chair.
   Student: Isto é a cadeira.
   The teacher holds up a pen.
   Student: Isto é a caneta.

3. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: When the teacher gives a cue specifying a certain kind of weather, a small group of students develops an appropriate short dialogue using sentence patterns previously learned.

   Example: The teacher shows a picture of a beach on a sunny day.

   Student A: É um dia lindo.
   Student B: Faz sol.
   Student C: Faz calor.
   Student A: Vamos à praia.
   Student B: A que horas?
   Student C: Às duas e meia.
   Student A: Óptimo!

4. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Writing
   Focus: Vocabulary – spelling
   Objective: The student writes simple sentences from dictation using vocabulary already mastered.

   Example: The student writes the following from dictation:
   É um dia lindo. Faz calor. O sol brilha. O céu está azul. José, Maria e Rui vão à praia com seus pais.

Russian

1. Course: Beginning
   Skill: Listening
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: When the teacher presents a sentence in the form: " Это . . . "[3] ("This is a . . . "), the student points to the object that is named in the sentence.

   Example: *Teacher:* Это карандаш.
   The student points to a pencil.
   Teacher: Это книга.
   The student points to a book.

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[3] Appreciation is expressed to the Pacific Coast Slavic Baptist Association, Inc., Bryte, California, for the typesetting of the Russian words in this section.

2. Course: Beginning
   Skills: Listening and speaking
   Focus: Comprehension and knowledge of interrogative pronouns
   Objective: When the teacher utters a statement that includes a pronoun, a verb, and an object, the student will substitute the appropriate interrogative pronoun for the object in the sentence.

   Example: *Teacher:* Я читаю книгу.
   Student: Что?
   Teacher: Я не знаю урока.
   Student: Чего?

3. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Speaking
   Focus: Vocabulary based on social amenities
   Objective: When the student is addressed in the polite conventions of speech (by the teacher, or by another student), he will answer in complete and appropriate sentences.

   Example: *Teacher:* Как вы поживаете?
   Student: Хорошо, спасибо, а вы? (one possible choice)
   Teacher: Спасибо, тоже хорошо. А где теперь ваши родители?
   Student: Все еще на даче.

4. Course: Intermediate
   Skill: Reading the Cyrillic script
   Focus: Comprehension
   Objective: After the student reads a paragraph written in Cyrillic, consisting of approximately ten sentences, he is given five short sentences that describe the scene depicted in the paragraph just read. From these, the student selects the three most appropriate sentences and puts them in sequence.

   Example: Здравствуй, Люда!
   Здравствуй, Коля!
   Мы три месяца не видели друг друга. Расскажи как ты провела лето?
   Хорошо, слушай. После школы наша семья поехала в Киев, а затем в Сочи. После Сочи побывали мы в Ялте, и вот, к началу учебного года, вернулись в Москву, домой.

The student is then given the following five sentences. The most appropriate of these sentences in relation to the original paragraph have been marked 1, 2, and 3.

— Разговор происходит между студентом и двумя девушками.

1 Говорят мальчик и девушка.

— Этот разговор происходит летом, на даче.

3 Молодые люди живут в Москве.

2 Друзья не виделись три месяца.

5. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Structure in telling time (other than a quarter past, half past, a quarter to, and on the hour)
Objective: The teacher manipulates the hands of a clock (or writes a time on the board) and the student says aloud the time indicated.
Example: The teacher indicates 8:20.
Student: двадцать минут девятого or восемь двадцать
The teacher indicates 2:35.
Student: без двадцати пяти (минут) три

Spanish

1. Course: Beginning
Skill: Listening
Focus: Comprehension
Objective: When the teacher gives an oral command, the pupil is able to carry it out.
Example: *Teacher:* Cierra la puerta.
The student closes the door.
Teacher: Abre la ventana.
The student opens the window.

2. Course: Beginning
Skill: Speaking

Focus: Structure for giving the date
Objective: When the teacher points to a number on a wall calendar, the student gives the date indicated.
Example: The teacher points to the 5 on the month of May.
Student: Es el cinco de mayo.
The teacher points to the 28 on the month of May.
Student: Es el veintiocho de mayo.

3. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Speaking
Focus: Use of vocabulary to express bodily discomfort.
Objective: When the student points to a part of his body, he says in Spanish that it hurts him.
Example: *Student:* (pointing to his arm) Me duele el brazo.
(pointing to his feet) Me duelen los pies.

4. Course: Intermediate
Skill: Writing
Focus: Structure – correct use of preterite
Objective: Given model sentences in the present tense, the student will rewrite them in the preterite.
Example: *Model:* Hablo a mi amigo.
Student: Hablé a mi amigo.
Model: ¿Comes en casa?
Student: ¿Comiste en casa?
Model: Juan escribe su lección.
Student: Juan escribió su lección.

Appendix G

Selected References

Part One — General References of Interest to All Foreign Language Teachers

Language and Linguistics

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